The Outlook

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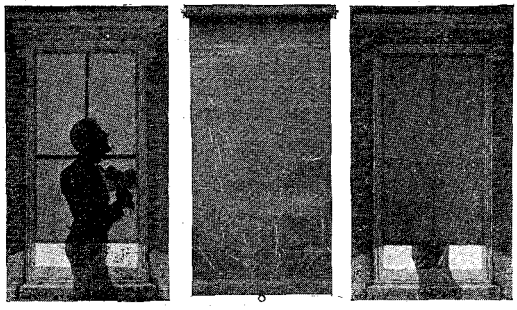
Shades that give
just the light you want
and won't 'crack'



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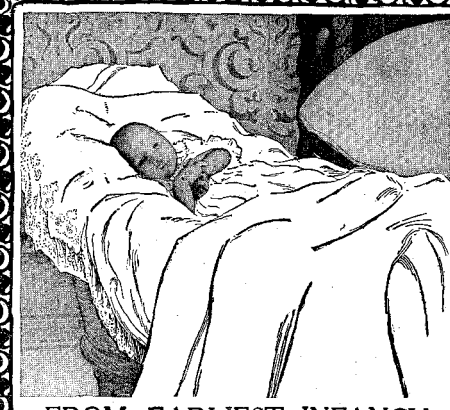

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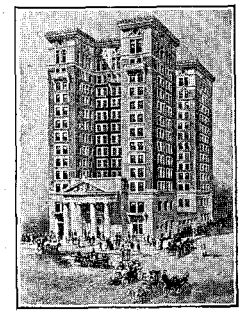

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, APRIL 13, 1907

The Roosevelt-Harriman Correspondence

The story of the Roosevelt-Harriman correspondence occupies eight columns of fine type in the New York dailies. All that is of real importance in this episode can be comprised in a paragraph of The Outlook. In 1904 the well informed had very little doubt that Mr. Roosevelt would be elected President, but a good deal of doubt whether Mr. Higgins could be elected Governor of New York. He was seriously handicapped by the unpopularity of his predecessor in office, Mr. Odell. The Federal campaign was going well with the Republican party, but not so the State campaign. The State Committee was without funds and could not get them. The President had very little anxiety as to his own election, but a good deal as to the election of Mr. Higgins. And the railway financiers had a good deal of anxiety as to Mr. Roosevelt's railway policies. He had already declared himself in favor of railway rate regulation, and they were desirous that he should confine it to such regulation as was possible under the then existing Elkins Law. Finally, Mr. Harriman was understood to be backing Mr. Odell in New York State politics, and desirous to see him vindicated, and his candidate, Mr. Black, sent to the United States Senate in place of Mr. Depew, whom therefore he was desirous of providing with a mission abroad. Such were the conditions when in October the President invited Mr. Harriman, "in view of the trouble over the State ticket in New York," to come on to Washington for lunch or dinner. He went. Exactly what took place at the interview is in dispute. Mr. Harriman reports that Mr. Roosevelt asked his help in raising funds for the National Committee. This Mr. Roosevelt emphatically denies; he avers that the communication between them related exclusively to the State campaign, in which Mr. Harriman was intensely interested, because he regarded the attack on Mr. Higgins as an attack on himself and on his friend Mr. Odell. Mr. Harriman reports that Mr. Roosevelt promised that he would appoint Mr. Depew Ambassador to France; Mr. Roosevelt affirms that he declined to give any such assurances. Correspondence immediately following the election shows that Mr. Harriman desired to urge his railway views on the President before his Message should go to Congress. The President, while expressing willingness to confer with him on that subject, declared that the conference would be useless, since his mind was made up to urge further legislation and could not be changed. It is apparent that the interview between the President and Mr. Harriman was desired by Mr. Harriman to impress on the President his railway views, and by the President to impress on Mr. Harriman his views of the importance of electing Mr. Higgins. Mr. Harriman came back from the interview, and raised $200,000, giving one-quarter of it himself. He claims, without stating the grounds for his claim, that this sum added 50,000 to the Republican vote in New York City. If the differences in the reports of this interview given by Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Harriman, respectively, involved an issue of veracity, we do not think, in view of recent revelations on the witness-stand, that the country would have any question about accepting Mr. Roosevelt's report. But a question of fact is not necessarily a question of veracity; and after a careful comparison of their conflicting reports, we are quite clear that the difference can be accounted for by a difference of interest and emphasis in their minds at the time, and a difference

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of recollection since. That the President wrote to Mr. Harriman explicitly saying that his visit to the White House would do exactly as well after the election as before it, is conclusive evidence, however, that there was no money-raising motive in the invitation. But Mr. Harriman has been in his political affiliations and experience so accustomed to the sordid use of money by both politicians and capitalists that it is quite probable that he could not understand the possibility of a more honorable motive. He is therefore entited to whatever credit there may be in such a misunderstanding. Where one may legitimately choose between the hypothesis of a misunderstanding and that of a deliberate falsehood the misunderstanding is always the better hypothesis. We think it would have been stronger as well as more charitable if the President had adopted it instead of adopting the other.

❀

Lessons of the Incident

From this mass of correspondence and these contradictory recollections certain indisputable facts emerge; and all the facts that are of real National importance are indisputable. Mr. Harriman did raise $200,000 on the eve of the election, report says from four subscribers including himself. This money was contributed in aid of a politician, Mr. Odell, who was in bad odor with the people of the State and the rank and file of his party, and to promote the interests of another politician, Mr. Depew, by securing either his re-election to the Senate or his appointment to a foreign mission. The money was all paid over to the State Committee, not to the National Committee, and was used presumably in the State campaign. There was no agreement or understanding, expressed or implied, that the President should modify his railway policy, and no such understanding is even intimated by Mr. Harriman. In fact, the President has not modified that policy, but has urged through Congress the railway rate regulation measure and has pushed forward investigation and prosecution of alleged millionaire lawbreakers, including Mr. Harriman himself. We do not see that there was any impropriety in Mr. Roosevelt's seeking a conference with Mr. Harriman—scarcely a day, never a week, goes by that he does not seek such conferences with leading men in their various departments—nor in his putting before Mr. Harriman, who was a Republican and a member of the National Convention which nominated Mr. Roosevelt, the needs of the New York State campaign, though in general the less a President mixes up in State politics the better. But the fact that four millionaires can afford to contribute $50,000 apiece to an election fund, and thus exercise financially as great an influence on the election as, say, twenty thousand ordinary citizens, furnishes an additional argument against the concentration of wealth in a democracy; and the fact that four millionaires did make such a contribution lends emphasis to the demand that accounts of all campaign funds, all campaign contributions and contributors, and all campaign expenditures be kept and put on file where they will be accessible to the general public.

❀

Federal Aid Averts the Railway Strike

That the United States has not altogether neglected to use governmental instruments for averting industrial war is shown by the ending of the recent threatened strike on the part of trainmen and conductors of the railways west of Chicago. The threat of the strike was due to a demand on the part of the employees for a nine-hour labor day and a twelve per cent. increase in wages, to which the employers would concede only a ten-hour labor day and an increase of ten per cent. in wages. Fortunately for the country's peace and prosperity, both sides submitted the dispute to arbitration, under the Erdman Law, passed in 1898, by the terms of which the Chairman of the Inter-State Commerce Commission and the Commissioner of Labor were to use their best efforts towards conciliation. It is a satisfaction to record the fact that a settlement has been arranged by Chairman Knapp and Commissioner Neill. The men abandoned their demand for a

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nine-hour work-day, and the railways made an advance in wages over their previous proposition. It is said that the employees on these railways will now profit during the coming year by a total of over five million dollars, the number of men gaining by the advanced wage-scale being about fifty thousand. Both sides to the controversy have expressed themselves as satisfied with the solution accomplished by the Federal agents. On their part, Messrs. Knapp and Neill have testified to the spirit of fairness with which, in general, the differences have been treated. If a railway strike, unprecedented in extent, had occurred, the consequences both to capital and labor would, at any time, have been disastrous, but especially at this time of freight congestion in the West they would have been doubly felt. The country is to be congratulated, therefore, first, that so satisfactory a statute exists, and, secondly, that the parties to the recent dispute were swift to take advantage of it. The greatest gainer is the third party to the dispute, the public. The good effect of the present half-way measure ought to encourage Congress to follow the Canadian example and enact a still more effective law. The Canadian method of dealing with such conflicts is familiar to those who have followed the activities of the Dominion Department of Labor. The powers of the Department have been extended by a recent act.

❀

The Canadian Way with Industrial War

As a consequence of a protracted strike in Alberta which threatened a fuel famine in that province and the neighboring province of Saskatchewan, the Parliament of Canada has passed a bill "To Aid in the Prevention and Settlement of Strikes and Lockouts in Coal Mines and on Public Service Utilities." The strike had been settled in November through the intervention of Mr. Mackenzie King, C.M.G., Deputy Minister of the Dominion Department of Labor; but hereafter, according to this Act, which was introduced upon his recommendation, until intervention and possible conciliation, such as he exercised, are applied no such strike can be attempted. The Act prohibits, under penalty, the declaration of any strike or lockout in coal mines or on public service utilities until a Board of Conciliation and Investigation has examined the causes of the dispute. Upon application by either employer or employed, the Minister of Labor is obliged to appoint a Board of Conciliation and Investigation. The members of the Board are paid by the Government for their services. This Board shall consist of one representative of each of the disputants, and one chosen by these two. In case of a failure to choose any one of these, the Minister of Labor is to make the necessary appointment. The Board thus constituted is empowered to compel the attendance of witnesses, make personal examination of premises, and require the production of documents and books. It is the duty of the Board to attempt to effect a settlement of the differences and make such recommendations as, in its opinion, would lead to an adjustment of the difficulties on an equitable basis. Although the findings of the Board and its recommendations are not binding upon the parties, the inquiry will have made the public acquainted with the facts, and, if past experience may be trusted, public opinion can be expected to prevent the strike or lockout. An important provision of the Act is that which requires employers and employees to give at least thirty days' notice of an intended change affecting conditions of employment as to wages or hours; and which also requires that pending an investigation the relation between the parties to the dispute shall remain unchanged. Attempts to cause lockouts or strikes contrary to the provisions of the Act are subject to heavy penalties. The fine for employers is from $100 to $1,000 and for employees $10 to $50 for each day of the illegal lockout or strike, respectively.

❀

A Good Example

This act of the Canadian Legislature is a reasonable consequence of legislation in other years. The Dominion has shown a commendable fearlessness and foresight in attempting a practical solution

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of the industrial conflicts of our day. In 1900 a voluntary Conciliation Act was enacted, which has proved an effective means of settling many of the most serious strikes in the Dominion. In 1903 Canada went one step further in regard to industrial disputes on railways, providing machinery for compulsory investigation of a threatened or existing strike, though at that time no provision was made prohibiting a lockout or strike until such an investigation had taken place. In the present measure a still further advance has been made, providing not only machinery for compulsory investigation, but making it obligatory upon the parties to submit their differences to a full investigation before engaging in industrial warfare. The measure, moreover, is not confined to any one industry, but includes, as already mentioned, all public utilities, including mines, railways, steamships, telegraph and telephone lines, street railways, gas, electric light, water, and power works. What Canada has accomplished in promoting industrial conciliation has been repeatedly recommended to Congress by the highest authorities in our own land. The Commission appointed by the President in 1902 to pass upon the question of the controversy in connection with the strike in the anthracite regions of Pennsylvania expressed the belief "that the State and Federal Governments should provide the machinery for what may be called compulsory investigation of controversies when they arise." In his Message to Congress at the beginning of its recent session the President devoted considerable attention to the need of investigation of disputes between capital and labor, and, referring to the suggestion of the Anthracite Commission herein quoted, said: "This expression of belief is deserving of the favorable consideration of Congress and the enactment of its provisions into law." During the debate in the Canadian House of Commons frequent reference was made to these expressions of opinion by the President and by the Anthracite Coal Commission, and it is reasonable to infer that they added not a little to the weight of authority cited in support of the measure. In seeking to advance the interests of her industries and people, Canada has not hesitated to profit by her knowledge of industrial conditions as they have shaped themselves in the United States. Our own country might well afford to follow Canada's example in the enactment of such legislation as is admitted by common experience and general consent to be in the interests of industrial peace.

❀

The Chicago Election

On Tuesday of last week Mayor Dunne failed of re-election as Mayor of Chicago. His successful opponent was Mr. F. A. Busse, postmaster of Chicago by appointment f President Roosevelt. Mr. Busse's plurality was in excess of 13,000. At the same election the traction settlement ordinances opposed by Mayor Dunne were approved on a referendum vote by a majority of over 33,000. The campaign was full of bitter personalities and had many interesting features, not the least of which was the personal appearance in Chicago of Mr. Hearst with a special staff of cartoonists and editorial writers from New York to help wage the battle of Mayor Dunne. In the opinion of many it was the support of Mayor Dunne by Mr. Hearst that turned the tide against him. One of the campaign cries was, "Home rule *versus* Hearst rule." The Hearst papers were credited with causing Mayor Dunne's surprising change of front on the traction ordinances. These ordinances have heretofore been described in The Outlook. Briefly, they provide that the existing companies shall rehabilitate the properties and stand ready to sell to the city at an agreed valuation at any time on six months' notice. This plan of settlement had been worked out by Mr. Walter L. Fisher, as special traction counsel for Mayor Dunne, when it became evident to the "immediate municipal ownership" Mayor that municipalization could not be brought about during his present administration. Mayor Dunne approved this plan of settlement until the negotiations with the companies were all but concluded. Mr. Hearst himself last spring had approved the general plan of the settlement as out-

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lined. But at the critical juncture the Hearst papers turned against the ordinances, and Mayor Dunne thereupon followed suit. In defense of their action they offered criticisms of the ordinances which the defenders of those measures said were inconsistent with the underlying plan of settlement concurred in by the critics at the outset. Mayor Dunne was renominated by the Democratic party after a bitter primary fight. Besides opposing the ordinances, he went back to the platform on which he had been elected two years ago—municipalization through condemnation proceedings. Had Mayor Dunne stood by the settlement ordinances worked out under his administration, it is quite possible that, in spite of his shortcomings, chief of which were vacillation and general administrative inefficiency, he might have been re-elected because of popular belief in his good intentions. The Republicans boldly championed the ordinances and promised a higher order of administrative efficiency. The election was one that presented many difficulties to independent voters, for to most of them neither Mr. Busse nor Mayor Dunne was satisfactory. Mr. Busse had long been an organization politician, and he was criticised on personal grounds. His friends claimed for him, however, that he was a politician who had generally done what the people wanted, and that he had been instrumental in bringing into public office many men of good records. An effective and in many ways unique campaign for the adoption of the ordinances was carried on by non-partisan organizations. One of them bore the name of the "Strap-hangers' League." The extremists both among the champions and the opponents of these ordinances contend that their adoption is a signal defeat for the municipal ownership movement. The moderate supporters of the settlement plan argue, however, that it offers the quickest and safest way to municipalization, and makes that policy possible just as soon as the people shall desire to embark upon it and can provide the funds to pay for the property, while providing in the meantime for immediate rehabilitation and improvement of service. In this matter it seems perfectly clear to us that the extremists are wrong and the moderates are right. What was defeated was not municipal ownership, but the particular brand of municipal operation which bore the name of Hearst.

❀

A Political Scheme Nullified

Again the cleverness of political tricksters has been their own undoing. The New York Court of Appeals, the highest court of the State, has declared unconstitutional and void the act of the last Legislature by which legislative districts were rearranged. The Court, in an opinion written by Judge Chase, gave as sufficient reason for the decision the conditions in two Senatorial districts—the Second and the Thirteenth. The Second was constituted by joining Queens County—which alone had a population more than sufficient to entitle it to a representative in the Senate—to Richmond County. The Thirteenth District, as created by the act, is, according to the Court, a "rambling territory;" its "many sides and various angles" are unwarranted by the Constitution. Both these districts are within the city of New York. In a very clear and sensible statement by Chief Justice Cullen, the Court points out that though the present Legislature is unconstitutionally composed, its acts will be valid. "We fully appreciate," says the Chief Justice, "that government should be prominently a practical thing;" therefore the present Legislature is declared a *de facto* Legislature, and each present member of it a *de jure* member. The next Legislature, however, must, according to the direction of the Court, be elected according to a new apportionment, or, if the present Legislature fails to make such a new apportionment, be elected according to that in force before the present unconstitutional one was made. The effect of the reapportionment act which the Court has condemned was to eliminate from the Legislature two of the most efficient of its members, and strengthen the hold of some of its least public-spirited. Already the gerrymander has proved in one respect futile; the attempt of Representative Wadsworth to overthrow State Senator Stevens

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resulted in his own defeat for Congress and the appointment of Mr. Stevens to be State Superintendent of Public Works. Now the whole gerrymander is made void. Of course those whose political power is weakened by this decision are among the opponents of Governor Hughes.

❀

The Prevention of War

Last week Mr. Root, Secretary of State, received from Baron Rosen, Russian Ambassador at Washington, a copy of the circular from the Russian Government, which issued the invitations to the coming Hague Conference, concerning the agreements and reservations made by the Governments invited. The original programme for the Conference was presented a year ago. It proposed as subjects for treatment:

1. Improvements in the settlement of international disputes by an international court.
2. Improvements relative to the laws and customs of land warfare, especially as to (*a*) the opening of hostilities; (*b*) the rights of neutrals on land.
3. Improvements in the laws and customs of maritime warfare, especially as to (*a*) the bombardment of ports and towns by a naval force; (*b*) the laying of torpedoes; (*c*) the transformation of merchant vessels into warships; (*d*) the length of time to be granted to merchant ships in belligerent ports after the opening of hostilities; (*e*) the private property of belligerents at sea; (*f*) the rights and duties of neutrals, this covering the question of contraband, the rules applicable to belligerent vessels in neutral ports, and the capture of neutral merchant vessels.
4. Improvements in the adaptation to maritime warfare of the principles of the Geneva Convention of 1864.

All the Powers addressed have declared their general adherence to this programme, with two additions made by some of them: (1) the right to propose other subjects than the above, and (2) the right to refrain from discussing subjects which would lead to no practical result. The first of these two additional rights covers our Government's understood proposal to submit to the Conference the desirability of an agreement to limit the use of force in collecting ordinary public debts arising from contract. We hope and expect that our delegates will also propose the creation of a permanent international advisory parliamentary body; no more important question could come before the Conference. The solution of all other questions should follow from it. The principle of international advisory legislation has already been applied to two subjects by the establishment of the Universal Postal Union and the International Agricultural Institute; and in the case of the older body at least—the Postal Union—has already been justified. The subject next in importance is the first question on the Russian programme—a general international treaty in which the nations should agree to leave all subjects within certain defined limits to the Hague Court. Two nations, Sweden and Norway, have already agreed to submit all subjects to the Court, and have thus placed themselves deservedly in the forefront of international progress. Next in order, as removing one of the causes of war, should come the subject expected to be introduced by our delegates—the subject of international opinion as to what extent force may be used in collecting debts from a nation—namely, the Drago doctrine. Thus the subjects which have to do with preventing war rather than with its amelioration may take first place.

❀

The Amelioration of War

Among the subjects which deal with the amelioration of warfare, immediate attention will doubtless be given to those left unsettled by the first Hague Congress in 1899—the rights and duties of neutrals, the protection of private property at sea, and the bombardment of ports and towns by a naval force. As Mr. Hay pointed out in his circular note issued in 1904, the first of these subjects is of universal importance:

> Its rightful disposition affects the interests and well-being of all the world. The neutral is something more than an onlooker. His acts of omission or commission may have an influence, indirect but tangible, on a war actually in progress, while, on the other hand, he may suffer from the exigencies of the belligerents. It is this phase of warfare which deeply concerns the world at large.

Concerning the protection of private property at sea, the American Government's position was well defined by

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the Joint Resolution passed in 1904; Congress then declared that there should be incorporated into the permanent law of civilized nations the principle of the exemption of all private property at sea, not contraband of war, from capture or destruction by belligerents. Among questions "unlikely to end in any practical issue," in the opinion of some Powers, that of limitation of armament finds first place. Despite the fact that, at Jean de Bloch's initiative, this very subject more than any other led to Russia's call for the first Hague Conference, her position to-day is somewhat changed. The admittance to the forthcoming Conference of many small States, where militarism does not oppress, makes Russia specially sensitive as to a possible adverse and (as she might think) unintelligent vote, the influence of which might restrict her freedom of action in restoring her army and navy to their normal strength, and in resuming her military position prior to the Japanese War. Be this as it may, the cart was really put before the horse when Russia proposed the subject of limitation of armament as the first to be examined in 1899, and the subject of arbitration the last. The special commission on limiting armament at that Conference did not go far with its labors before discovering that the moment had not yet arrived to limit military forces on land and sea by an international compact, and it referred the subject to the further study of the Powers, but at the same time unanimously declared that "a limitation of the military charges which now weigh upon the world is greatly to be desired in the interests of the material and moral welfare of mankind." It thus strengthened the opposition to any augmentation of militarism, for its influence has since forced Governments to justify, as they had not hitherto, every increase of armament. In 1907 the world recognizes what it did not fully recognize in 1899—that the way to arrive at peace is not by ameliorating war, but by preventing it. The adoption of arbitration as a means of settling international disputes should, of course, lead to gradual disarmament.

The Pool-Room Disclosed

The long-continued engagement of District Attorney Jerome in the Thaw trial has not prevented him from being active in other services to New York City. On the first of April the District Attorney's office made a raid on a pool-room, and the revelations furnish some startling figures as to the profits made by the syndicate which operated it. These amount, according to press reports, to eight millions a year. More interesting is the fact that these profits were shared in by an individual variously referred to as "T. G.," "T. Grady," "Tommy," "Sen. G." It has been pretty definitely intimated by the press that this "T. G." is a prominent member of Tammany Hall and a member of the State Senate; at this writing there has come no denial of the identification from the Senator. If he is a member of the pool, he has been engaged in the violation of the laws of the State, and if so there is excellent authority for the doctrine that this is sufficient ground for his expulsion from the Senate; for Mr. Roberts, the Utah polygamist, was expelled from the House of Representatives on the ground, entirely adequate it seems to us, that a man who is engaged in breaking the laws of the land is not a fit person to sit in the Legislature and help make the laws of the land. The facts brought to light by this raid ought to be sufficient to keep the ignorant and the innocent out of pool-rooms, and would be if it were not for the truth of the adage, "The fool and his money are soon parted." For a man who goes into a pool-room with the expectation of making money out of the pool deserves to be ranked in the first order of fools. A pool-room is a contrivance for enabling men to bet on horse races without attending the race; that is, a contrivance for furnishing all the vices of horse-racing and none of its healthful interest. In the pool-room is a blackboard with the names of the horses engaged in the race. Above the name of each horse are written the odds which the pool will give to the individual bettor. If the reader will substitute for the letters below the names of horses, he will get a

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little notion of the machinery of the pool-room:

10 to 1 on A	4 to 1 on B	1 to 1 on C	6 to 1 on D	3 to 1 on E

10 to 1 means that the pool bets 10 to 1 that A will not win. The individual bettor pays his dollar and receives tickets or a ticket entitling him to ten dollars in case A wins. So of every other horse in the race; and there are sometimes a score of them. The reader will at once perceive that the individual bettor can only win on one horse—the horse that wins the race—though he may bet on other horses. The pool necessarily wins on all the others. Therefore, even if the game were always played fairly, the pool would be engaged in a very profitable business. But the game is not always played fairly, and the unfairness is always for the benefit of the pool. The manager of the pool has special advantages of knowing what horse is likely to win. More than that, he can enter into arrangements with jockeys and stablemen on the course, by which one horse will be made to lose though he is not the natural loser. To all the pool-rooms there comes a telegraphic or telephonic wire from the race-course so that the bettors in the room can be told how the race is progressing. As it progresses the excitement increases. The fools (and most of those in the pool-room are fools) lose their heads as well as their money; the manager never loses his head. To some of the pool-rooms there comes a private wire in a room above. Its messages are communicated to the manager. He knows the instant A has won the race—perhaps three or four minutes before the message comes over the other wire to the roomful. He is from time to time changing on the blackboard the odds which the pool will give. He changes the figures on B or C to 6 or 8 to 1. The fools, gulled by the larger odds, take the bet, and the pool thus possesses an additional opportunity to recoup itself out of bets on horses that have already lost for the payments which it must make on the horse which has already won. There are some additional complications in the pool-room which we do not think it necessary here to explain. We wish to make the statement so simple that the simple can understand it, in the hope that the proverb we have already quoted may be counteracted by another—"Surely in vain the net is spread in the sight of every bird."

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Pennsylvania's Costly Capitol

The Legislative Commission which is investigating the decoration and furnishing of the new Pennsylvania Capitol at Harrisburg has been in session for a month, with illuminating results. An article in The Outlook for January 26 described the beauty and splendor of the Capitol, and reported the charges of extravagance and graft made by State Treasurer William H. Berry. Mr. Berry expressed the firm conviction that the State had paid five million dollars more for the Capitol than it should have paid. The testimony taken by the Commission seems amply to bear out Mr. Berry's assertion. The contract for doing most of the decoration and furnishing of the building was awarded to one firm, Sanderson & Co.; though some of the decoration was done by the contractors who built the Capitol, Payne & Co. The actual work, however, as is usual in such cases, was done by numerous sub-contractors, each a specialist in a certain line. It is some of these sub-contractors who have furnished the most interesting evidence. The president of a Pittsburg company testified that it had furnished two mosaic frieze bands for the interior of the Capitol dome, for which it charged the contractor $7,224. The State paid the contractor for this work nearly $28,000, a price which gave him nearly 300 per cent. profit. The contract for the furnishings specified for the ornate chandeliers in the various rooms Baccarat glass, a product made only in France. The secretary of a glass company in Pittsburg testified that his company supplied all the glass under this specification, that it was manufactured in Pennsylvania, and that the price received for it was not quite $30,000. The price which the State paid was over $138,000. On this item the contractor's profit was about 360 per cent. Other

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items whose cost was testified to by the actual manufacturers were:

	Sub-Contractor's price to Contractor.	Contractor's price to State.	Contractor's profit.
Woodwork in Governor's Suite	$16,089	$94,208	Nearly 500%
Woodwork in Senate Anterooms	6,145	62,486	About 870%
Cup Rack in Barber Shop	325	3,256	About 900%
38 Mahogany Clothes-Trees	456	2,796	About 513%
Desk in Lieutenant-Governor's Room	130	349	About 151%

❀

Curious Rules and Regulations

The methods which made such profits possible were pointed out in The Outlook's article on the Capitol. The famous "per foot" rule of computing the prices of furniture, woodwork, and miscellaneous decorations, and the "per pound" rule for chandeliers and bronze work, seem to have given the contractor practically unlimited opportunities for swelling his profits. The investigation has not yet revealed the proper process for determining the number of "feet" in an armchair, a clothes-tree, an umbrella-stand, or a bootblack-stand. In the case of one item, however, a mahogany table, it is clear from the bill how the thing is done. The number of "feet" charged for is the product of the length, the breadth, and the height of the table; the State, therefore, has had the pleasure of paying at the rate of $18.40 per cubic foot, not only for the mahogany of which the table is made, but for the air-space included within its outline. One of the most important discoveries of the Commission tends to explain why one bidder was awarded the entire contract for decorating and furnishing the building, although the bids of other firms on single items were much lower than those of the successful contractor. The Board of Public Grounds and Buildings, which had this part of the work in charge, passed a resolution that no bid should be considered except for the entire contract. Several witnesses have testified, however, that they knew nothing of this ruling until after their bids, on only one or at most a few items, had been made. The result of the investigation thus far has been to indicate with increasing emphasis that the Capitol has cost the State much more than it is worth, on the most liberal valuation. It must be remembered, however, that neither the contractor, the architect, nor the members of the Public Buildings Board have been heard in their own defense. Until they are heard, judgment should be suspended; meanwhile, the evidence for the prosecution is intensely interesting.

❀

Ermete Novelli

"The man makes me cry; and yet I don't know a word of Italian." So muttered a man in a Novelli audience the other evening. A knowledge of Italian is not necessary to appreciate Signor Novelli's art. His realistic pantomime, his portrayal of passion, and the "business" of his admirable company need no language for expression, and repay attention from any one. During the past three weeks Ermete Novelli, new to the American stage, has been seen in sixteen plays. His versatility is remarkable. As a tragedian he disappoints, if we expect the reproduction of what we now are pleased to think traditional, due to long education by a Booth or an Irving. The Italian does not picture his Shakespearean heroes as nervous Americans or as intellectual Englishmen. He has the courage of his own convictions. Whether one agrees with the vigorous emphasis put upon certain features or not, his performance is always suggestive—and that, after all, is the highest merit of art. In his own way Signor Novelli is an absorbingly interesting actor in tragedy. But he is not as strong a tragedian as was his compatriot Salvini, and certainly does not rise to the lofty heights of the greatest English-speaking actors of our time. Signor Novelli is distinctly great in romantic drama and in comedy, where he can match any contemporary. Those sterling, if now to our taste rather florid, dramas, "Louis XI.," by Delavigne, and "Kean," by Dumas *père*, have rarely, if ever, had more impressive representations. It is especially, however, in such exquisite comedies as Shakespeare's "Taming of the Shrew" or Goldoni's "Burbero Benefico" that the stalwart Italian is notable. Underlying his as-

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tounding variety of facial expression, of gesture, of stage resource, of splendor of diction, is a very virile and sympathetic personality. In his every line independent and individual, Ermete Novelli leaves the auditor impressed by a red-blooded humanness, vitality, and reality. In sending us this actor of distinguished genius and finished art Italy has added to the debt America already owes her in the realm of æsthetic education.

❀

Dr. Drummond

Few Canadians were so widely known and so warmly appreciated in this country as Dr. William Henry Drummond, who died suddenly at Cobalt last week from the effects of a stroke of paralysis. Several years ago a dinner was given to Dr. Drummond in New York City which brought together an unusual number of writing men of position and quality, and was characterized by a still more unusual expression of admiration for the literary work of a singularly attractive writer and personal regard for him. Dr. Drummond was born in Ireland, spent a part of his boyhood among the hills of Donegal, but was brought to Canada at an early age and educated at the English High School in Montreal, at McGill University, and later at Bishop University in that city, graduating in medicine in 1884. He began the practice of his profession in the Province of Quebec, in a little community made up of Indians, half-breeds, Scotch-Irish Canadians, French habitants, and English. The locality and the people furnished him with the richest material for appeal to his sense of humor and pathos, and turned the country physician into a dialect poet of very unusual quality. He was, moreover, an athlete and an all-around out-of-door man; fond of sports, of hunting and fishing; and he acquired at first hand an intimate acquaintance with the woods and with the French-Canadian voyageurs and habitants. He was a poet by the gift of nature. Casual expressions from the people about him, such as "The wind, she blow, blow, blow!" used by a raftsman in describing a storm, gave him hints for his dialect poems. Many of them, like "Johnnie Couteau," are as widely known in the United States as in Canada. Four volumes contain Dr. Drummond's work in prose and verse, and much of this work is likely to survive for many years to come by reason of its closeness to life, its sincere feeling, its freedom and music. Dr. Drummond was, later in his career, Professor of Medical Jurisprudence in Bishop University, and was widely known as a reader and lecturer. His loyal nature, vigorous character, and the charm of his temperament will be long missed by the host of friends whom he had made.

❀

State Control of Public Utilities

No question at the present time exceeds in importance the two questions—first, What ought to be the relation between the State and the corporations in a democracy? and, second, In a Federal democracy how shall the triple relation between the State, the Federal government, and the corporations be adjusted? The Public Service Commissions Bill in the New York State Legislature is of National interest because it throws light especially on the first of these questions. The discussion of it is important because it involves a consideration of principles applicable in any State of the Union.

To put into law a comprehensive plan for State control of all public utilities is the great undertaking attempted in the Public Service Commissions Bill. It might well be called the Hughes Bill; it was drafted to accord with Governor Hughes's recommendations. Last week, in two speeches, at Utica and Glens Falls, he appealed to the judgment of the people on behalf of the bill. The Outlook has already outlined it (see issues for the 16th and 23d of March). In the main the bill provides for the creation of two commissions which divide between them the responsibility for directing the operations and financial transactions of the railways, street railways, gas and electric companies, and indeed practically all public utilities within the State except telegraph and telephone companies. These commissions are

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required to act in accord with the Inter-State Commerce Commission.

Last week and the week before, the opponents of the bill directed their fire upon it at hearings before a legislative committee. At the same time newspapers have found their voice in criticism. The opponents of the bill consist of three classes: the officials of the public utilities involved; conservatives who are concerned at the disregard which the bill shows for doctrines that they hold dear; and extreme radicals of the Hearst type who see in rigorous regulation a menace to more socialistic methods.

Their criticisms may be grouped as follows: First, objections are raised to certain details which, though of importance to New York State, are not of great National interest. Such, for instance, is the objection to the provision for meeting out of the resources of New York City the expense of that one of the two commissions which has charge of the district comprising the city itself. It is urged that since both commissions are State commissions with equal power, they both should be paid for from the State treasury.

More important is the objection raised against the alleged violation of the home rule principle. The commission which has charge of the utilities within the territory comprising New York City ought, it is said, to be a municipal, not a State, commission, and the members of it ought to be appointed not by the Governor but by the Mayor. This objection logically would require a separate commission for every city, would relegate all control of public utilities to local option, and would be fatal to unity of administration. It is true that such a commission must superintend activities carried on within the city; but the corporations which are engaged in those activities are creatures, not of the city, but of the State; the commission, therefore, should be created by the State and be held responsible to the State.

A vigorous objection is raised against the proposal to have the members of these commissions appointed by the Governor and subject to dismissal by the Governor. The really democratic plan, it is urged by the spokesman of Mr. Hearst, is to have these members elected by the people. This objection presented in the name of democracy would substitute for a democratic measure one essentially undemocratic. Theory and experience combine to teach that administrative officers should be appointed, not elected. If the Governor is, as he ought to be, held responsible for the administration of the laws, he should have full power to select such administrative officers. And experience has shown that an efficient commission of this kind is obtainable only by appointment. The Commissioners are to be chosen for their expert knowledge as well as for their executive ability. The people have no way of searching out such experts and of weighing their relative merits. This task ought to be given into the hands of a representative of the people, such as the Governor. In order to secure and protect competent men, the members of the commissions, it is urged by Mr. Joseph H. Choate as spokesman for the railways, should be subject to dismissal only by the Senate upon charges preferred by the Governor. If the Governor, however, is to be held responsible for the administration of the laws, he ought not to be denied the power to remove from office administrators in whom he has not confidence. Experience, moreover, shows that a cumbersome method of dismissal is a refuge for incompetency. The most democratic method is to put this power of selection and dismissal into the hands of the Governor, and then leave it to the people to determine what kind of a Governor it shall be to whom they will intrust this task.

An objection is raised against the bill because it has no elaborate provision to enable the judiciary to pass upon the reasonableness of the commissions' decisions. This is practically equivalent to a demand that ultimately all the work of the commissions should be intrusted to a court. As was brought out in the discussion over the Federal Railway Rate Regulation Bill, the courts themselves have held that the task intrusted to these commissions is one which belongs not to a judicial but

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to an administrative body. In the case of confiscatory acts the courts will intervene upon complaint, whether there be a provision for court review or not.

Very serious and plausible objection is raised against giving to these commissions power so drastic that they may find it possible, on the one hand, to require these corporations to incur vast expenses, and, on the other hand, to prohibit them from engaging in financial transactions which will enable them to meet the expenses laid upon them. For instance, the commissions are given power to prescribe the improvements which a railway should make in its permanent way and rolling stock, and then, on the other hand, it is empowered to prevent a railway from increasing its capitalization. These commissions, it is argued, may thus stand as overseer, and compel the railways as slaves to make bricks without straw—or even clay. Certainly great caution should be exercised in defining the powers of such a commission. In experiments of this kind it is better at first to give too little than to give too much power. But some power of destruction is inherent in all government. If that power is exercised destructively in this case, it will injure not merely a few railway managers but the whole commonwealth; and if the people wish to bring such destruction upon themselves, they can do so by a thousand other means as well as by means of these commissions. In fact, such commissioners as may be appointed by any Governor whom the people will choose are as likely to be solicitous for the welfare of investors and the public at large as most railway managers.

In some minor particulars this bill may be amended without injury. But as it stands it is a valuable contribution to the great question of corporation regulation by the State, and is well worthy the study of publicists, editors, and economists who are giving attention to this subject.

These fundamental principles implied in the bill are universally applicable:

Corporations engaging in inter-State commerce should be subject to Federal control.

Corporations engaging in business within the State should be subject to State control.

A commission created to supervise and regulate corporations has not legislative but administrative functions, and therefore should be appointed, not elected.

Its functions being administrative and not judicial, its actions should be subject to no judicial review except as constitutionally required.

The powers of such a commission should be carefully and clearly defined, but their extent should be determined not by past traditions but by pr sent conditions.

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The Texas Idea

A page of experience is worth a volume of theory, although a little theory may often help to interpret experience.

Mr. H. J. Haskell, of the Kansas City Star, gives an account on another page of the municipal experiment in Texas that reinforces a theory of municipal government to which The Outlook has given occasional though somewhat hesitating expression. Iowa, Kansas, and South Dakota have recently passed laws providing for a system of municipal government based upon the Texas idea. In the light of this experience this plan of municipal government can no longer be considered a debatable theory; it is a practical and successful method which, in our judgment, ought to be widely followed throughout the country.

America has made a mistake in organizing its city governments upon the model presented by the Federal and State governments. It has been assumed that a city government must possess the three departments—legislative, executive, and judicial; that in the legislative department there must be local representation. There has been, therefore, always a municipal council, often two bodies, and the members have been elected, not by the city at large, but by wards or other political districts.

In fact, there is no real analogy between the city and the State, and no analogy at all between the city and the Nation. There is no occasion for local representation in a city government. The

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interest of one ward does not differ from that of any other ward, as the interest of one State differs from that of another State, or as the interest of one county sometimes differs from that of another county. The laws for the city are made by the Legislature of the State. There are, it is true, some relatively important city ordinances; but the chief work of law enforcement is, not to enforce these ordinances, but to enforce the laws of the State. The city is not a separate political entity. The work of a so-called city government is not primarily governing; certainly not primarily political. It is the work of a corporation carrying on an immense business, either directly by its own agencies, or indirectly through private enterprises employed for the purpose. This business includes such functions as providing water, seeing that the citizens are properly furnished with lights, making provision to guard against fires, establishing and maintaining public parks for popular health and recreation, watching against the approach of contagious disease, opening and paving the streets and maintaining them in good order, and the like. This is not legislative work, it is administrative work. In this work of administration all the citizens of the city are equally interested. It is a work which can be done by a few men better than by many; and by men having equally at heart the interests of all the city better than by men chosen by localities to represent localities. In the organization of such an administrative body the example furnished by individual enterprises is the one to be followed rather than the example furnished by political organizations.

All Boards of Aldermen and Councilmen should be abolished; all idea of elaborate legislative functions to be performed should be abandoned. A Board of Directors of the city should be elected, as there is elected a Board of Directors for a bank or a railway corporation. Possibly in the greatest cities, especially where there is a suburban population which is within the municipality, or where there are separate boroughs with separate ideals as in New York City, there should be provision for their representation in the Board; but with this possible exception the Board should be elected by the city at large. It should be a small Board, so small that the best men of the city could see it to be worth while to serve in it. And to this Board the entire administration of the city's business should be intrusted, as the entire business of a railway is intrusted to its Board of Directors.

❀

Not Enemies but Friends

That there is a great deal of pain and sorrow in the world that is preventable is evident; that there is a steady diminution of disease and pain among men is probably demonstrable; but that pain and sorrow are wholly removable or essentially evil is a doctrine which misleads many from time to time, and which, in various forms, is commending itself to a host of men and women at this particular period. A pathetic fallacy underlies some modern thinking and some modern movements: the fallacy, as old as man, that the end of this present life is happiness; that every man and woman ought to attain happiness here and now; and that what is called the happy life is the successful one. According to this view, pain and sorrow and death are intruders at the feast—uninvited guests who enter to blight the joy and overshadow the festivity. This is a very inadequate and misleading conception of what men and women are here for. The instinct for happiness, the intuition that every human spirit ought to be happy, the passion for happiness which possesses many people, have their roots in a great and blessed fact; but the intuition and the passion are prophetic of what is to come when the discipline is ended, the school closed, this stage of education finished. No children are so unfortunate as those who are the victims of unintelligent affection; whose wills are never trained, whose purposes are never crossed, who never bear the yoke of discipline, and who are allowed to grow into men and women without self-control, or the ability to concentrate and direct their own powers. This evasion of the authority imposed

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on fathers and mothers is a prolific source of crime, disorder, and misery in this country. It is the untrained boy who becomes the lawless man; it is the undisciplined girl who wastes her life and makes the tragic mistake of supposing that the doing of one's own will is the road to happiness.

We are not in this world to be happy. We are here to be made strong for a happiness greater than that which we desire. We are not here to be at ease, to be protected and sheltered from discomfort, work, and anxiety, any more than a boy at a real school under a true master is to be allowed to shirk his lessons and waste his time. The school of life is so much vaster and the conception of human nature and human destiny that underlies it so much vaster than the dreams of most men and women that multitudes pass through it without any idea of what it all means, losing the wonder and glory of it in a feeble attempt to reconstruct it to meet their own wishes. Pain and sorrow and death are not only appointed for all men and women, but are among the greatest teachers, and therefore the best friends, of men and women. Pain is incidental to all birth and to every stage of growth. Sorrow must come wherever there are human affections; death, instead of being the specter of mediæval fancy, the terrible intruder of the Maeterlinck tragedy, is the angel of Watts's noble imagination: august, imperative, awful, but breathing beneficence from every fold of its garments. Pain is not to be treated as if it were an interference with normal living; it is as much one of the processes of living as the necessity of observing rules and learning lessons is a part of education in the school. Sorrow, instead of being feared as an enemy, ought to be accepted as a friend; for there is no surer way of taking the bitterness out of grief than by making sorrow at home in the house to which it has come. And as for death, who that has lived deeply and well has not had at times a vision of its beautiful service to the human soul? As Mr. Aldrich said, "It is the shadow that passes over the flower of life."

A sermon by Bishop McCormick, of Western Michigan, on "Pain and Sympathy," is full of the higher consolation which comes from clear vision and courageous acceptance, and brings out another of the many sides of sorrow and the immense place it fills in the mysterious training of life:

> Nor can we forget, my brothers, that this cry is not only a challenge, a plaint, and a warning, but that it is also a plea for sympathy. "Is it nothing to you, all ye that pass by?" Ah! the apparent contrasts of life! This planet struck and scorched with sin and suffering, its Edens overgrown with thorns, its creatures become beasts of prey, its Perfect Man hanging in agony upon a cross; and those other worlds, lustrous, calm, splendid, whirling yonder through the depths of space. The half of a continent plague or famine smitten, and other lands aglow with pride and pomp and feasting. The hospital, with its moaning sufferers, its agony, its death-rattle, and the crowd that laughs by its doors. A soul singled out and sore stricken, and the chattering multitude that sweeps heedlessly along. O men and women, brothers, sisters, nurtured by the milk of human kindness, sharers of a common lot, is it nothing to you? To you, who at any moment may be swung from pole to pole, from light to darkness, the laugh suspended on your open lips to issue in a cry, the smile arrested to be frozen into horror: is it nothing to you, all ye that pass by? Thank God! it is already something; by and by it will be everything. The bypasser has become the bystander, and the bystander the sympathizer. Since Jerusalem sat solitary among the nations, since the Son of man was cursed upon the cross, and men laughed and mocked even on that awful Place of a Skull, sympathy has come. Men name it altruism; they may call it what they please, they may label it and its kindred virtues according to the latest scientific classifications. We know it to be Christianity; the charity of Christ, the Christ-born charity of all good Christian men. In the sympathy of the Saviour of mankind lies the secret and the source of all sympathy. From that fountain flows forth the ever-rising tide of brotherhood of man, the surging glory of the fatherhood of God. Because of Christ and Christly men, men are caring more and more. Strike here with calamity or pestilence and the nerves vibrate yonder, on the other side of the earth, and men there weep and pray and give and help. The priest and the Levite no longer pass by on the other side. Priest, Levite, and Samaritan, sinking all distinctions, are one in the relief of the wounded and the oppressed, all differences forgotten in a brotherhood of mercy. When we suffer, we know that many others are suffering with us. And, after all, there is much blessedness just here. Who can estimate in gold or gems the worth of loving sympathy, the uncommercial value of the pressure of a friend's hand?

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The Spectator

It was the eighteenth of January, and the Spectator found himself in Baltimore. The significance of the fact may not at once appear. But by some trick of memory it popped into the Spectator's head that morning that the eighteenth of January is the date of Poe's birth, and Baltimore his burial-place. To be sure, the poet was born in Boston, but incontestably he died in Baltimore; and where can one so fitly make obeisance to a man's memory as upon his tomb? The Spectator determined to devote the day to Poe—the more so as his conscience smote him because he had hitherto paid such small tribute to the good and great of his native land, for all his pilgrimages to the shrines of foreign men of letters. Barring an ineffectual search for the graves of Longfellow and Lowell amid the flowery mazes of Mount Auburn, and a brief visit to Sleepy Hollow, he could not recall one such pious quest. All a-fever with anxiety to make amends, he rose and prepared for the fray. There came back to him the words of an Englishman who had just completed a circular tour of the United States in six weeks. Said he, "What! you've not seen the grave of Edgar Allan Poe? It's unique, man, unique! Quite the rarest thing in America."

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The Spectator was not the only man in Baltimore that day who lay under the reproach of never having seen the Poe monument. Old Baltimoreans, Johns Hopkins professors, and policemen alike looked vaguely pained when appealed to for direction. "Oh, yes, certainly," they said. "He's buried somewhere about. The school-teachers put up a monument." The Spectator could have told them so much himself. He began to fear that the great fire might have wiped out the last visible trace of Poe. It was a young Englishwoman, a student in Johns Hopkins Medical School, who finally furnished a clue. "I believe," said she, "that you'll find it in the churchyard at Westminster Church."

❀

At Westminster Church? The Spectator put down the odd phrase to British idiom. But it wasn't that; it was precisely descriptive. When the Spectator found himself before the ugly red-brick front of Westminster Presbyterian Church, holding parley with the janitor through the cold bars of a locked iron gate, he understood. "No, sir, can't let you in. This isn't *my* churchyard. I'm the janitor of Westminster Church. It's not my business to show the graveyard of the *First* Church!" The Spectator cast a bewildered glance about. A high stone wall inclosed the church and the little plot of ground about it. "Where," said he, "*is* the First Church?" "Dunno," said the janitor shortly, and went inside and shut the door.

❀

To the house of his sole Baltimore acquaintance went the Spectator to be straightened out. She laughed at his tale of woe. "I'll get you in," said she, and straightway ran to don her wraps. Back she led the Spectator to the red church and the iron gate, and, while she made demonstrations to call the janitor, bade him press his nose against the bars and look attentively at the foundations. Baltimore churches are apt to have peculiar foundations; St. Paul's was based on a lottery, and Westminster, the Spectator now saw, had a unique underpinning of tombstones. Raised on tall brick piers, the building allowed the eye to stray beneath it where dim ranks of tottering tombstones glimmered weirdly out of the gloom. "If that be the graveyard of the First Church," gasped the Spectator, "pray, then, is the First Church a catacomb?" The Baltimorean smiled. "The old First has moved, and it looked for a time as if the graveyard, Poe and all, might be sold for building purposes. It was to save it from annihilation that Westminster Society agreed to build on the site. It's a makeshift, superimposing the church on the graveyard; but it was better than disturbing all those venerable tombs."

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"And Poe," the Spectator murmured with a shiver of repugnance. "Is he in there?" "In there? Yes; but luckily not in the cellarage. He is out in the sunshine behind the church." At this

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juncture the janitor appeared in response to the shakings at the gate. And sulky enough he looked when he recognized the Spectator. His answer was as short as before—the churchyard was not shown. "But," said the lady, firmly, "I have ancestors buried in that churchyard." The man hesitated. "What names?" said he. The lady mentioned two which fell meaningless upon the Spectator's Northern ear, but which bowed that janitor in the dust before her. Nowhere perhaps in all America is pride of birth stronger than in Maryland. Let those who, like the Spectator, aspire to drop a tear on the grave of Edgar Allan Poe see to it that they get themselves convoyed by Baltimoreans of lineage. For everybody "as is anybody" seems to have at least one family tie with the old graveyard at Westminster Church.

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The now respectful janitor led the way through the warm silence of the red-carpeted church, and so by the pulpit door out of that seemliness and peace upon a sight as wild, as melancholy, and withal as invincibly picturesque as the character of Poe himself. Surely the sickle can never have come upon the coarse, matted grass that riots over that singular, neglected plot. Out of the jungle of rank weeds and ranker ivy rose great family tombs in the style of ancient Egypt—huge pylons with the lotus bud topping the pillars that guarded the sealed doors, a pyramid or two full twenty feet high, and for the rest table-tombs leaning crazily on their ancient legs, and scores of tipsy or prostrate gravestones. The Spectator searched in vain on these venerable monuments for a date more than a century and a half old. Yet so cracked, so crumbling, so lichen-crusted were the stones, and weathered into so rich a chiaroscuro of black and yellow, that it was hard not to think of them as mellowing for four or five hundred years in the fogs of Old London.

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While the Spectator stooped his head to decipher the inscription on a worn old tomb, the janitor vouchsafed the fact hat the records of the quaint little burial-place are lost. That is to say, since the death of the old janitor nobody knows where the records are laid. Unless the half-obliterated inscriptions are soon re-cut, time will consign the inmates of these imposing tombs to the ranks of the unknown dead. The Baltimorean demurred. "Their descendants have no need of inscriptions to guide them," said she. "They will not forget. And are not a good many Baltimore families still interring here?" The janitor nodded, and, turning toward the church, pointed to the dim recess beneath it. "A tomb was opened just lately in there." He led the way into the cellar. There, quite close to the door of the modern furnace, he scraped away the coal from a deep-stained marble slab and showed us a ring by which it might be lifted to give access to the tomb beneath. The Spectator struggled to adjust his mind to admiration of this style of burial, but signally failed. As he peered about through the damp darkness of the place, noting how furnace pipes were forced to circumvent Egyptian vaults, and how the shadows bristled with gravestones, he could not help thinking how Poe would have liked the place, the eerieness, the mystery, the antiquity. And when outside he found the poet's corner and beheld the clean, clear-cut, modern little monument, he grieved. More than half a century has passed since Poe was laid to rest, and he had a right to all the dignity of crumbling stone, moss, lichen, and ivy. And, behold, the tardy assiduity of posterity has cheated him!

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The Spectator read that night in the "Sun paper," as Baltimoreans call their popular journal, that Richmond is preparing to put up a notable monument to the eccentric genius nourished to manhood within its walls. The Sun paper regretted that so little was done in Baltimore to honor the memory of Poe. It proposed, as indeed it has been proposed many times before, that a fund be raised to tidy up the old graveyard, erect a more fitting monument, and provide for the perpetual care of the poet's grave. But the Spectator does not like to think that modernizing hands will ever be laid upon the quaint disorder of the place.

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THE TEXAS IDEA

CITY GOVERNMENT BY A BOARD OF DIRECTORS

BY H. J. HASKELL

AN agent went from Milwaukee to Houston, Texas, recently, to look after back taxes on land. The taxes had been assessed against various persons owning indefinite interests, and the thing was in a tangle. The agent wanted to have the property reassessed against the real owners so that the back taxes could be cleared up.

He was familiar with the customary procedure. First, he expected to present a petition to the City Council setting forth the facts. This, of course, would be referred to a committee. The members would need to be seen individually, then would come the efforts to get them together. Political influences would be brought to bear, a favorable report would be obtained, and finally, after weeks of delay, the adjustment might be secured.

The lawyer whom he consulted was not impressed by the magnitude of the undertaking. He merely remarked that they might as well go over to the Mayor's office and settle it at once.

"Hold on," the agent replied, in surprise. "Before we see anybody, oughtn't we to get some influential business men here to go with us, so the adjustment will be made on a fair basis? There's sometimes prejudice against an outside corporation—"

"You don't know what sort of a government we've got in Houston," the lawyer interrupted. "Pull doesn't go."

The doubting man from Milwaukee went to the Mayor's office. The lawyer made his explanations, the assessor was called in, figures were produced showing the assessments on adjoining property, and in an hour the intricate matter was practically disposed of. The agreement was then formally ratified by the Council. That ended it. The business was transacted precisely as speedily and as equitably as it could have been done by any well-managed corporation.

And, indeed, it was a corporation that transacted it—the Corporation of Houston, managed by a board consisting of a chairman and four directors, Mayor and Aldermen, Houston calls them. In Galveston, the city that first tried the experiment, they are called frankly a Mayor-President and Commissioners. The old name of alderman is retained in Houston apparently only out of deference to the past.

These two towns are trying to work out a solution of the problem of municipal government along lines that are practically new in America. Having found the old form of government by municipal legislature a failure, they have not sought to abolish the council or even primarily to reform it. They have merely reduced it to such a size that its members may be held accountable, and then have given them the power essential to efficiency. In Galveston the emergency from the great hurricane of 1900 supplied the motive for the revolution. There was no such emergency in Houston. But the Galveston system worked so efficiently that the sister city went to the Legislature two years ago for a charter to enable it to repeat the Galveston experiment.

It is quite conceivable, of course, that the crisis in storm-swept Galveston might have resulted in putting capable men in office who would have accomplished as much under the old form of government as has been accomplished under the new. But in Houston results quite comparable to those in Galveston have followed the adoption of the centralized scheme, and

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in Houston, as has been said, no great crisis called men to serve their city. The fact is that the more one examines the way municipal business is conducted in Houston, the more apparent it becomes that the city is proving the truth of Lord Salisbury's remark that three men around a table can settle any question—in this case even the question of municipal efficiency.

The men in office now, with one exception, were seasoned politicians. They had held office before, without making any great mark. Mr. H. B. Rice, the Mayor, had served in the same capacity in the old régime. Mr. J. Z. Gaston, in charge of finance, and Mr. J. A. Thompson, at the head of the departments of sewerage, water, and health, were both members of the old Board of Aldermen when the new charter became effective. Mr. J. B. Marmion, in charge of the street and bridge department, had been City Recorder. Only Mr. James Appleby, head of the police and fire departments, was not known in politics, and his fire chief is an ex-alderman and ward politician, while his chief of police held that position under the old administration.

The increased efficiency to-day may be traced directly to the simplicity and centralization of the new plan of government, in which the Mayor and four Aldermen elected at large are left practically untrammeled to work out the city's salvation.

Take such a small matter as the prescriptions given by the city to the poor. Sometimes they had cost several hundred dollars a month. Rarely had they been less than $75. The Alderman in charge of the health department under the new system appointed a druggist as the clerk of his department and bought $100 worth of drugs. Since then the city has filled its own prescriptions at a cost of five cents each. The assistant health officer fitted up a surgical room where many patients are treated who formerly were sent to a hospital. The saving from these two economies amounts to from $100 to $150 a month.

This is not a large item, to be sure, though it amounts to something in a city of the size of Houston. The significant thing is that a competent city official was able to institute these economies without tedious delays and without the necessity of making concessions to "pull." Under the old system matters of this character would have been discussed at great length in the City Council—and Houston was fortunate in having a single House instead of two—aldermen would have been hauled about by druggists looking for city patronage, and very likely nothing would have been done.

Consider another instance. Several years ago the city erected a crematory, at an expense of $12,000, to dispose of its garbage and rubbish. The plant required a good deal of fuel and the services of three or four men. It frequently got out of order, and eventually was abandoned, though a watchman was retained, at an expense of sixty dollars a month, to look after it. The head of the Health Department under the new administration was not compelled to wait months for aldermanic committees to work out some remedial plan. There was a sewage pumping plant in the middle of the city. At a cost of $750 he rigged up a simple device for burning garbage adjacent to this plant. He connected the furnace with the stack of a pumping plant, thus securing sufficient draft to burn the garbage without additional fuel. The men at the pumping station were able to do the extra work necessary, so the bill for fuel and running expenses was practically eliminated. Observe, again, that this saving was accomplished in the manner of any well-conducted big business enterprise, and not after the fashion of city governments.

Observe, further, that "well conducted" is not a superfluous qualification. The city has had the opportunity to make a direct comparison of its efficiency with that of a corporation in handling its water plant. Under a former administration the city defeated by a vote of three to one a proposal that it own and operate its water-works. Confident of the business possibilities of the new charter, it reversed itself by a vote of four to one last year, and took charge of the plant in October. The old company's service had not been satisfactory. Since it was cheaper to pump

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from the Bayou than from the artesian wells that were supposed to furnish the supply, a considerable percentage of Bayou water was mixed with the pure water from the wells. Moreover, the fire pressure was often inadequate.

The city at once cut off the Bayou water, and began the installation of duplicate machinery. The average water pressure was increased about nine pounds, and adequate fire pressure was obtained. While wages of employees were increased slightly—about $3,600 a year—the salaries of the company's officials were dispensed with to the amount of $9,000 annually. The city is burning less coal than the old company, and the total expense of operating the more efficient plant is about $400 a month less than it was under private management.

Such specific instances as these are more significant, perhaps, than the dry facts that under the new charter the city, in less than two years, has reduced taxation from $2 on the hundred to $1.80, and that it has canceled the floating debt of nearly $300,000, while it has paid off nearly $200,000 more of indebtedness in the form of street-paving certificates, debts to the old water company, and the like.

Galveston has had a similar experience. In the last five years of commission government it has decreased its running expenses a third, has cleaned its streets, done much paving, put in sewers, improved its water plant, and become a well-ordered, prosperous town.

These like results in both cities are to be traced, as has been pointed out, to the abolition of the checks and balances which American municipalities copied from the Federal Government, which in turn had inherited them from parliamentary England, and to the centralization of authority and responsibility.

Formerly Houston was divided into six wards and there were two Aldermen from each ward. There was a multiplicity of other elective officers—half a dozen or more—besides the Aldermen. It was impossible to hold so many accountable for the conduct of their offices. Now the ward lines are abolished, the four Aldermen are elected at large, and the other city officers are appointed by the Mayor and may be removed by him at will—except the Comptroller, who is elected by the Council and to that body alone is responsible. If things go wrong, it is easy to fix the blame on the Mayor or one of his four assistants.

"If we should grow careless," a Houston man said, "and allow incompetent or dishonest men to be elected to the Council, we would at least have this advantage—it's easier to watch five thieves than fifteen."

But the thieves aren't likely to be elected. The new charter makes office-holding attractive to the competent man. By removing hampering restrictions that usually surround city officials, it enables him to get results. This is the direct testimony of such men as Mr. I. H. Kempner, President of the Texas Bank and Trust Company of Galveston, who is serving his city as Commissioner of Finance and Revenue. It is common sense, too.

This freedom from restriction is carried so far that the Houston charter, for instance, is more remarkable for the things it omits than for those it contains. You will search in vain in this pamphlet with the brick-colored covers for the scheme of government that is in actual operation.

You may know that the Mayor supervises the city engineering and legal departments; that one Alderman is in charge of finance, another of public health, another of streets, and a fourth of police and fire service. But you will find none of this information in the charter. It merely says that "the administration of the business affairs of Houston shall be conducted by a Mayor and four Aldermen," and that the Aldermen shall perform "such administrative duties as may be allotted by the Mayor."

In practice this plan has worked out on a business basis. The Mayor assigns the Aldermen to their departments at the beginning of his administration. In the conduct of the city affairs Mayor and Aldermen get together, talk things over, agree upon what should be done, and then ratify their agreements in formal and brief Council meetings. Theoretically the Council is always in session. Here is practically the British cabinet

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system, in which executive and legislative authority are combined. Readers of Bagehot who recall his comment on the effect of the responsibility of cabinet ministers in sobering their speeches and reducing promises to a basis of performance will be interested to note that an analogous result is produced under the centralized form of city government. The Council cannot afford to indulge in the customary buncombe.

This is admirably illustrated in the experience of Houston, where the city engineer says that the cost of running his office is about half as much as under the old order, for this reason: Under the old régime every Alderman, in order to make a showing for his own constituents, would get through the Council ordinances requiring the engineering department to prepare plans and specifications for vast amounts of work, with no expectation that the work would ever be actually performed. In one year his office prepared plans and specifications for more than three million dollars' worth of street improvements, when only $250,000 worth was actually done. So a needlessly large force of draughtsmen was required, and occasionally contracts were let on specifications perfunctorily prepared without expectation that they would be used, and the city's interests suffered. Now there is no temptation to play to the galleries. The city's Board of Directors knows how much work can be done. It has no object in calling for plans for more. It is responsible, not to the wards, but to the city as a whole.

This desire on the part of Aldermen to make a showing for their home wards is a familiar and sinister phenomenon in American cities. As a rule, the ward Alderman is much more interested in "getting things" for his constituents—street paving, lights, patronage, and what not—than he is in doing things for the city at large. So, too, he is apt to be unduly influenced by the aggressive "wide open" element in his ward, which by clever manipulation is often able to exercise a power out of all proportion to its real strength.

Galveston got rid of ward Aldermen in 1895, and elected its Aldermen at large. This brought better results. But it was only after the commission form had gone into effect, and responsibility had been definitely and publicly located, that the worst dives were closed and the saloons and the disreputable element were brought under the control of the law.

In Houston gambling-houses were allowed to operate almost unmolested until the new system of government was introduced. Now these places have been practically suppressed. Formerly the saloons were open all day Sunday. Now they are open only after one o'clock in the afternoon. Although the Council has been criticised for failure to enforce the State law to the letter, many well-informed persons feel that it has gone as far as public sentiment sanctions.

That it commands the support of the public is indicated by the fact that more than a thousand persons recently petitioned the Mayor and the four Aldermen to become candidates for re-election. This is nearly a quarter of the voting population, for Houston, incidentally, disfranchises what it considers the irresponsible voter by requiring a receipt for a poll tax of $2.50 as a condition for casting the ballot. And only about 4,500 of a voting population of perhaps 12,000 go to the polls on election day.

With the experience of the average American municipality in mind, it might possibly be taken for granted that the majority of persons would agree that the centralization plan would generally result in increased efficiency, but that one insurmountable objection would occur to them. That's all very well, they would say, but what about franchise grabs? Our present system, with its interminable debates and committee references, is cumbersome enough in the transaction of ordinary business; but at least it prevents—or makes less easy—the theft of valuable rights by public service corporations.

Houston, too, realized this difficulty, and this is the way it met it. The charter provides, in the first place, for the publication once a week for three consecutive weeks of the franchise ordinance. The publication is at the expense of the applicant. In the second place, it provides that the ordinance

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cannot become effective until thirty days after it shall have been signed by the Mayor. Lastly, on the petition of five hundred voters the Council is required to call a special election at which the franchise must be submitted to a popular vote. A majority vote is necessary to confirm the Council's grant.

In this way the rights of the city are as carefully safeguarded as they possibly could be even in municipalities where franchise ordinances are threshed over in two houses of the Council before they go to the Mayor. The city of St. Louis, it may be recalled, has a bicameral Council—under a requirement of the Missouri Constitution which thus sought to save the cities from themselves—and yet so remote was the city government from the people, so divided the responsibility, that both houses were regularly bought and sold until an alert and upright prosecutor, Joseph W. Folk, began sending the boodlers to the penitentiary.

Galveston and Houston do not insist that they have devised a perfect scheme of government, or one that could be advantageously adopted by other cities without modification. Indeed, there are striking, though minor, divergences between the charters of the two cities, Thus the Mayor-President and Commissioners of Galveston are paid small salaries (the Mayor-President $2,000 and the Commissioners $1,200 each), and they are not expected to give their entire time to the work. Their functions are like those of directors in a private corporation. They meet at night, discuss the city's affairs, and agree on a policy. The appointive heads of departments are held responsible for results. In Houston, on the other hand, the officials are paid larger salaries (the Mayor $4,000 and the Aldermen $2,400 each), and the charter requires them to give all their time to the work. It has been urged that the men whom the city needs for Aldermen cannot give up their entire time to the work for the salary offered, and that the Galveston plan in this respect is better for a city of, say, less than one hundred thousand inhabitants.

Again, it has been suggested that it would be better that the city elect five Aldermen, instead of four, and that the Aldermen elect the Mayor. A popular man with small business ability might be elected Mayor, as often happens in American cities. Whereas it is felt that the responsible board of managers of the city would be more apt to select its most capable member as its executive head. These, of course, are minor details which must be worked out in the light of fuller experience.

Meanwhile it is interesting to observe that the movement toward centralization is being widely discussed; that the officials of Galveston have been fairly swamped with letters of inquiry; that San Antonio and Fort Worth are considering the advisability of following the example of the two largest Texas cities, and that the officials of Topeka and of Kansas City, Kansas, have applied to the Kansas Legislature for permission to submit the commission form of government to a popular vote.

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IS MARS INHABITED?

BY PERCIVAL LOWELL

Since 1840 the climate, conditions, and surface of Mars have been subjected to very careful examination by astronomers who have made this subject a special study, and have published from time to time maps giving pictorially the results of their observations. Of these special investigators, the leading ones are Schiaparelli, an Italian, and Percival Lowell, an American astronomer. The latter has had peculiar advantages for conducting such investigations in the possession of an observatory at Flagstaff, Arizona, where the peculiar clearness of the atmosphere, free alike from the smoky impurities of more populous regions and from the moisture common in the rainy regions, gives conditions especially favorable for this minuter study of the heavens. Here, to quote Mr. Lowell, "the stars shine out as they shone before the white man came." The investigations of these and other observers have brought to light on the surface of Mars a series of markings, the character of which precludes the idea that they are either rivers or chasms in the planet's surface, and warrants the supposition that they are areas of vegetation created and maintained by an artificial system of irrigation. If so, their existence would demonstrate that Mars is inhabited by intelligent beings, who are familiar with agricultural arts, possess the virtue of industry, and have some degree of what we would term scientific knowledge. To this conclusion the expert students of Mars have been brought by their studies, though they hold it more or less as a rational hypothesis rather than as a demonstrated fact. The only arguments against this hypothesis appear to us to be without weight—these, namely: first, that many astronomers who have lacked the special advantages of such observers as Schiaparelli and Lowell have not seen these markings; and, second, that it is not to be believed that any other world than our own can be inhabited. We suspect that the real reason for discrediting the conclusions of such observers as Mr. Lowell is this naïve egotism which persists in regarding man as the "lord of creation." The Copernican theory of astronomy put an end to the geocentric conception of the universe. If the not improbable hypothesis that Mars is inhabited by intelligent beings should be established, it would put an end to some of the semi-theological theories which we have inherited from a time when this world was thought to be the center of creation, the sun and stars a mechanism for supplying it with light, and man the supreme and only son of God, for whom the universe was all made. The reader who is interested to pursue further this topic will find the material in the very interesting recently published volume on "Mars and its Canals," by Percival Lowell, the author of the following article.—THE EDITORS.

PERHAPS no better response could be made to the request of the editor of The Outlook for an article on the habitation of Mars than by answering some of the questions that spontaneously arise on the subject in a reader's mind. For such a one is anxious to learn the evidence upon which the conclusion is based, that he may judge for himself of its cogency. To do this understandingly he must be satisfied on two points: of its value first and of its pertinency afterward. With regard to the first he is specially liable to be confused.

To a layman it seems sufficient that a man be an astronomer for his pronunciamento upon any astronomical matter to be regarded as authoritative, whatever the matter may be. But if the same layman will consider any other subject, such as law or medicine, he will recognize at once that to be skilled in one branch of his profession does not entitle a practitioner to expert opinion in another. One would hardly consult an aurist for an attack of typhoid fever, or a conveyancer for a point in criminal procedure. Yet to-day astronomy is itself quite as specialized, and a man whose occupation is celestial mechanics is not on that account an authority on planetary observation. Even in branches of the same profession it is surprising how often the mistake is made, and how in books on astronomy the writers will assert that the doctors disagree without so much as considering their respective qualifications to a diagnosis.

In no field is this more patent than in

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that which deals with visual observation of the planets, partly because the workers are few, partly because the critics are many. Only the other day I received a letter from an eminent astronomer, a doubter in print of the linearity of the canals, who, having just become aware of the importance of chromatic aberration in the matter, wrote suggesting my trying remedies for it, unaware that such remedies had been used first by Schiaparelli and then by me, for thirty years. After this, one willingly agrees with this astronomer's own words in another place —"If the reader ask about habitability of Mars, I can only reply that he knows as much about it as I do, and that is just nothing at all." In truth, the only astronomers capable of an opinion are those who have made special study of Mars. Now, the first point to be noted is the remarkable agreement between these astronomers, who are thus entitled to speak with authority on the subject, with regard to what they have depicted. Almost the only difference between them has been one of advance from the time of Beer and Mädler to the present day, as inspection of their maps will show.[1]

Undoubtedly the most important question we can ask about an observation, other than as to the man who made it, is the site of the observatory where it was made. For details are unmistakable in good air which wholly escape detection in a poor one. It is vital, therefore, to learn how the sites of observatories whose names are familiar to him compare with regard to what they will show. Now, a year and a half ago some tests were made at Flagstaff, Arizona, upon the number of stars visible in a certain region of the heavens which had been mapped first at the Naval Observatory in Washington and then at the Lick Observatory in California. The visibility of stars depends upon the character of the sky through which the rays coming to us must pass, the clearer and steadier the air the more stars being seen with a glass of a given aperture. To see stars of a magnitude fainter a glass of a diameter half as big again must be used if the sky be the same in the two places. Now, the region examined yielded the following number of stars at the three observatories in question:

	Size of aperture.	Number of stars.
Lowell Observatory...	24-inch	172
Lick Observatory.....	36-inch	161
Naval Observatory....	26-inch	61

In other words, so much purer was the air at Flagstaff than at Mount Hamilton or Washington that more stars were visible with a 24-inch glass there than with a 36-inch one at the Lick, and nearly three times as many as could be detected with 26-inches at the Naval Observatory. The results were subsequently confirmed by photography of the region at Flagstaff. Now, the steadiness of the air which thus affects the stars affects still more the planets. The outcome, therefore, speaks impersonally for the credibility of the detail seen on the planets at the latter place. For Washington may be taken as a fair representative of observatories generally in the eastern United States and Europe.

Next comes the care with which the observations must be conducted. For denseness in the observer does not compensate for lack of vacuity in the air. Schiaparelli critically scanned and tested all his observations, and the present writer has studied the conditions of seeing side by side with the things seen. Knowledge of one's own eyes, study of the air-waves in their effect upon the telescopic image, investigation of apertures and eye-pieces, of interposed glasses to give monochromatic light, and of other researches too numerous and technical to repeat here, all go to a getting of the sharpest and most minute detail, and must be understood and practiced by one who would aspire to an opinion upon the facts.

Systematic study is no less imperative. Unless a man be of rare judgment and unusual acumen, a little knowledge here is as disastrous as in other vocations. Much of the skepticism on the subject is due directly to this cause. Many an observer has looked under poor conditions once or twice, seen nothing, and gone his way convinced that nothing was

[1] "Mars and its Canals" contains a number of these maps, which furnish the reader both ocular demonstration of the canals and also illustrate the progress which has been made since 1890 in discovering them.—THE EDITORS.

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there, forgetful of the fact that if the thing were as easy as that it would not have waited so long for discovery. In truth, training here is as necessary as in anything else worth the finding out. The landsman cannot see what the sailor detects in a moment, and the Indian follows a trail where to the tenderfoot nothing is observable.

On the other hand, long-continued study helps to perfect both the observations themselves and the outcome to which they lead by intercomparison and summing up. Schiaparelli considered that an observer should follow Mars for at least a cycle of oppositions, or, in other words, for fifteen years more or less, if he would know the planet; and the more the present writer has studied this interesting body, the more profitable he has found such study to be. The advances made since Schiaparelli's time are ample testimony to the amount there is yet to be learned about it.

Of the extent to which such systematic study is carried at Flagstaff it is enough to say that the planet has been kept under observation there now for twelve years, covering six oppositions—that is, six returns to proximity to the earth. At each of these favorable epochs Mars has been scanned for seven months or so, on end, as continuously as possible, and in that climate continuity of observation is possible. In 1903 there was a stretch of forty-six days when without a break the planet was visible every night. The drawings made of it in consequence number thousands—each a complete delineation of every marking to be seen upon its face. Such a mass of material furnish data not to be disputed save by an equal collection, and no other such collection exists.

Another matter should be mentioned in which a reader may go astray. Even good observers differ notably in their field of proficiency, because of two quite different qualities in the human eye. For an eye may be specially sensitive to light or specially perceptive of form, and the same eye rarely if ever has both capacities. Consequently a man who detects the difficult in faint stars or satellites is not only no authority for that reason on delicate detail, but is actually prevented by the constitution of his eye from seeing it, and is rendered all the more dangerous a guide to others from the fact that he is unaware of his limitation.

In passing on, now, by these stepping-stones of painstaking care to what they have revealed, I cannot in the transition do better than quote Schiaparelli's fine simplicity in refutation of his critics: "I am absolutely sure of what I have observed."

Under such research one set of markings presented by the planet's face is curious to a degree. It is the one most concerned with the subject of life. Over the map-like topography which the planet reveals unveiled to view, there is spread a fine reticulated network of lines. Each is straight or symmetrically curved and is of uniform character throughout its course, being of the same size from one end to the other. Some resemble strong pencil-marks, others show light as gossamer threads. But each is emphatically linear and of sharp definitiveness when the air is still. When the air is not still, the lines dilate, broadened into streaks just as a page of print violently shaken widens to a blur; and in this guise they are commonly seen at most observatories because of the disfigurement the images undergo in traversing our atmosphere. That such distortion is of our own air's fashioning I have had plenty of occasion to note. Unpossessed of measurable width, they are visible solely for their length; a seeming paradox that any one may verify by the look of telegraph wires seen a long distance off. For to these they stand akin. From experiments made on such at Flagstaff it appears that we could see a line on Mars if it were only a mile wide.

The network starts near the edge of the polar caps, while its meshes lower down connect all the salient features of the great blue-green areas. Where the lines cross each other the junctions stand confessed of importance by small pinheads of spots. Instead of stopping at the dark areas, the lines have been found to lace them and thence to connect with others that carry the network up to the other polar cap. The consequence is that the planet's surface is triangulated as by a geodetic survey.

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No part of it escapes the reticulation, whence all of it must be land.

Now, the geometricism of these lines shows at once that they cannot be cracks such as we see on the moon, nor rivers such as we know on earth. Their even size throughout precludes alike the one and the other supposition. Their amazing directness of direction equally negatives such a character. Nor is there any other natural phenomenon which will explain them. Unaccountable is their form and still more their interconnection on any purely natural hypothesis. They look to be of artificial creation; and, instead of giving up the ghost of the idea on closer and more critical investigation, the better they are seen the more perfectly do they carry out the character. It is not generally known and it is particularly telling that their geometric appearance grew on Schiaparelli as he continued to observe. His successive maps show strikingly how loth he was to credit his own eyesight, and how recognition of the wonderful method in these lines was gradually forced upon him by the lines themselves.

Not the least significant confession to their non-natural character is that critics who have not seen them are driven to denial of the correctness of the observations as the only refuge from acceptance of artificiality. But to deny from *a priori* prejudice what one has not seen and another has is like denying the existence of Paris because one has never been there.

Their appearance is not the end of the matter; their behavior is even more self-committal. To one who watches them month after month it becomes evident that these markings change. Where at first no lines were visible lines begin to appear. And this without regard to the planet's proximity to or remoteness from the earth. Indeed, the times when Mars is nearest are not, as a rule, the best for the detection of the lines, and this accounts for their having remained so long unseen. But to another circumstance they pay strict attention: the seasonal epoch of the planet's year. At certain Martian months they are conspicuous, at others the reverse. Now the dark areas with which they are associated are undoubtedly areas of vegetation. The fact that the lines traverse them shows that they cannot be seas, as was once thought, while other reasons, such as their own seasonal change, point to their being vegetation. A similar seasonal metamorphosis is undergone by the lines, and predicates a like character for them.

To appreciate how the links in a long chain of argument fit into one another to an articulate exposition of artificiality one must read the literature of the subject. Here it is possible only to point to a sign-post or two. For instance, one of the most telling things about the lines which are the much-talked-of "canals" is the course taken by their development. For this does not commence till the polar cap is well on its way in melting. The canals nearest to the cap proceed to darken first, then those next them take on tone, and so the evolution into conspicuousness progresses, the canals emerging, as it were, in turn according to latitudinal position. A wave of transformation sweeps thus silently down the disk. It is early summer when this metamorphosis occurs. Now we have assurance that the substance composing the caps is frozen water, because, first, it behaves like snow; second, there is no other substance known to us like it in look and character; and, third, the latest investigations by the writer, instead of the great cold formally supposed to be the Martian portion in consequence of the planet's distance from the sun, indicate a mean temperature of about 48° Fahrenheit. The development of the canals, then, waits on water and follows upon the unlocking of its winter's hoarding in the polar cap. But the way this occurs reveals something other than purely natural processes as cause. For the figure of the planet is such as to make of its surface a level surface, so that what is called, broadly speaking, water freed at one spot would not of itself, except in a very local way, seek another. It would be quite incapable of traveling of its own accord from the pole to the equator. Yet it does this surprising thing; and not only that, but pursues its course well over into the planet's other hemisphere. Twice each Martian year the singular phenomenon

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takes place, first from one pole and then six months later from the other. Nothing known to physics could cause it, for the flow takes place in defiance of the laws of gravity. So far as it can be measured, the flow advances down the latitudes with regular speed—fifty-two miles a day, or two miles an hour.

What, then, it will be asked, are these so-called canals? The best answer consists in pointing to the Nile. What we call the canals are narrow belts from ten to twenty miles wide on the average. They behave as strips of vegetation would, and such beyond much question is their character. Seen from space the Nile would look not otherwise. It, too, threading its way across a desert, fertilizes a ribbon of country which is some fifteen miles wide. Once each year it grows green after the fashion of the Martian canals, and then in due time lapses again to ocher. The river itself would escape detection from a Martian distance, and still more remain invisible if, as probably on Mars, the fertilizing conduit were smaller still. Canals, then, these lines may with propriety be called, although there is no ground for supposing them to be of herculean description, any more than there would be for deeming the water supply of our cities to be indebted to anything larger than two-foot pipes, or an oasis in the Sahara to be the child of more than a tiny spring. It is the only explanation which is in accordance with the facts of observation concerning the lines themselves and the spots at their junctions, and it is furthermore the logical outcome of what research of the last few years has shown us to be the general physical condition of the planet. That life now habits Mars is the only rational deduction from the observations in our possession; the only one which is warranted by the facts.

As to what the life habitant there may be like I should not pretend to say. As yet we lack sufficient data to infer. For just as it is unscientific to deny observations because we fear the seemingly startling conclusions to which they commit us, so it is not the province of science to speculate where observation is wanting, however interesting and even useful such speculation may be.

CONSERVATISM IN THE UNITED STATES

BY FRANKLIN K. LANE

Inter-State Commerce Commissioner

THOUSANDS of Americans sincerely believe that the United States is politically the most radical country on this round planet. Hardly a day passes lately without the publication of some alarming prophecy of the evil that will surely befall unless we mend our ways and utterly destroy those dangerous persons who by one means or another are seeking to change things. We have forsaken the gods of the elder days and are following after strange red gods of modern manufacture. Prosperity is to be destroyed and individual liberty and initiative are to be submerged in the rising sea of American radicalism. Woe is to be our portion and desolation will fall upon the land. And all this, indeed, because one man favors the imposition of a tax on incomes, and another favors a tax on inheritances, and still one more would decrease the number of working children, and yet another would reduce street railway fares or curb illegal industrial combinations.

There is nothing, to be sure, that stands between this country and any form of confiscatory policy that can be imagined excepting the letter of our laws and the spirit of our people. These, however, are quite sufficient.

This government is organically conservative. We could not, though we would, do violence to property rights without wrecking the government in substance and in form. The fundamental law of the Nation contains provisions more surely protecting property than are

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to be found in the laws of any other land. We have no doctrine that the king can do no wrong, or that the State can do no wrong. The right to property is a vital part of our organic law. The police powers of the State are broad, but this is necessarily so. There could be no government of any kind without such powers; they inhere in government itself.

Not only has this right to possess and enjoy property been anchored into the foundation stones of the Republic, but the people, if so disposed, have been deprived of the power to amend or alter the Constitution save by the most elaborate and almost impossible procedure. And to remove still further the danger of hasty and passionate expression, every legislative body, National, State, or municipal, is deprived of the power to convert its will into law without being subject to the check of the courts. Thus the Congress of the United States is less absolute than the Parliament of England or the Chambers of France.

These constitutional limitations upon the power of the people are our own; they are to be found nowhere else. Yet they apparently have no place in the thought or consideration of those alarmists who are somewhat monotonously declaiming upon the dangers of radicalism in the United States.

The American people themselves may be safely classed as the most conservative among the civilized peoples if we are to judge from their legislation. Things we call radical, other nations, older and perhaps soberer than ourselves, regard to-day as mere commonplaces. Many of the very ideas which alarm the conservatives of America are accepted and approved by conservatives elsewhere. And if those who speak in honest fear of present radical tendencies among our people will in all calmness review the proposals advanced by American statesmen, they will have difficulty in finding a single one which has not been debated in the parliaments of Europe and tested by one or more of those we call the great nations of the Old World. Tory statesmen of old England (whose policies did not spring, be it said, from fear of losing their seats) favored laws a full half-century ago which to the Americans of to-day seem perilous experiments. Germany's system of compulsory insurance and Great Britain's land policy in Ireland are, in point of paternalism, beyond the utmost bounds of any political programme seriously supported in America. It must be conceded that since the early years of our life we have done little to establish our right to pre-eminence in the world of political science, and it is difficult to refute the contention that other peoples have labored more zealously than ourselves to establish justice and equality under popular government and to perfect its forms. Not that we are indifferent to these things, but since the Civil War our minds have been obsessed by great material experiments and exploitations, and thus it has come about that we have permitted others to experiment for us in the political laboratory. We needed a secret ballot for many years, and one came to us at last from Australia—not by the direct route, however, but via Suez and across the Canadian border. So, too, its complement, the Purity of Elections Law, followed almost literally the Corrupt Practices Act of England. Our railway, factory, and other regulative measures of much prominence were born of foreign parents. Indeed, one has difficulty to find any so-called radical legislation which did not originate in some other land and take from ten to fifty years to cross the ocean. This is one industry in which the balance of trade has been altogether against us in recent times. We have imported some of the reform ideas of other lands, but have not been able to show a corresponding offset in the exportation of similar domestic products. One does not hear of any practical political reform, or even any economic theory, of American origin, causing debate in France, Switzerland, England, or New Zealand, excepting that in several foreign lands a much warmer reception has been given to Henry George's theory of taxation than has been extended to it in this country. Altogether, therefore, it would appear that the United States is not entitled to a seat on the Extreme Left in the Parliament of the Nations.

Patently, the fact that other peoples

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may have found certain institutions or laws advantageous or beneficial is not a demonstration that we should incorporate them in our own system. Policies and measures may flourish and give rich returns in one land and produce naught but evil in another. The value of any piece of political machinery depends upon those who use it, their political upbringing, and the "set" of their natures. One need not, however, be either Socialist or dreamer because he proposes an Old World remedy for a New World symptom.

To those who see nothing in the political, social, or economic conditions now prevailing that calls for improvement, there must of course be something extremely absurd in any suggestion of new legislation. And so also to those who have adopted the easy philosophy that all political action is predestined to be futile. But to those who believe that the problems of a people change with the changes in the form and nature of their life, it would seem inevitable that they should feel a desire to see the machinery of society adapted as speedily and smoothly as possible to its new work. Hitherto we have had to meet but few of the problems of the more congested countries. The land has been rich enough to offer abundant opportunity to all. The distance between rich and poor has been so comparatively slight that it has been possible to step from one class into the other. Employer and employee have been neighbors and friends. We lived a narrow individualistic life—the life of the town-meeting, the church, and the farm. But who shall say that this old order is not passing or has not already passed away? Instead of the town, we have the great city in which one out of every twelve who die is buried by the municipality. Instead of the individual employer, we have the impersonal corporation. Instead of the individual employee, we have the sensitive, shrewdly directed labor union, representing perhaps a million men, with which to bargain. Instead of the farm whereon all was raised that the family needed, we have the farm which turns out a special product, and is entirely dependent upon the city for supplies. Instead of the single industry, we have the trust. Instead of competition, we have "community of interest"—extending across seas and around the world. Instead of the local railroad owned at home, we have the transcontinental system owned abroad. Instead of the little paper in the little town, we have the metropolitan daily reaching the remotest household. Instead of the country store, we have the mail order house. Instead of the boss, we have the syndicate. Big things have taken the place of small ones in all fields. We have become apparently interdependent to the fullest degree. This is not the work of government, nor has it been consciously effected. We thought at first that it was temporary; we know now that it means a mental as well as an industrial growth. Men think in continents where once they thought in villages, and in millions where once they thought in thousands. Men think, too, in relationships and not as solitary units. To this new order society and all its agencies must adapt itself.

The world, for it is a world movement, must deal with the new problems to which this spirit of combination and interdependence may give birth. They must be met in each land in a manner suited to the form of its government and the nature of its people. They are to be dealt with in the United States according to our laws and the temperament and ideals of our people. Again we are to be given an opportunity to prove the adaptability and the efficiency of a republican form of government. To find a way through—this is the statesman's problem; a way that will lead to peace and not contention, security and not shipwreck; a way that is not to be found by those who would substitute an artificial for a natural social order, nor yet by those who would deny to society the right more perfectly to express itself, its purposes and ambitions. There can be no peace and no security without maintenance of the law and a steady intent to do justice, and the dangerous class is composed of those, by whatsoever name they may be called, who, through ignorance, malice, or indifference, imperil all law by justifying or seeming to justify injustice.

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THE SCHOOL DAYS OF AN INDIAN

BY CHARLES A. EASTMAN
(OHIYESA)

I. MY FIRST DAY IN SCHOOL

"O-HE-E-YE-SA!" It was my name that rolled forth in a sonorous call from a low log cabin which stood just around a bend of the Big Sioux River in Dakota. The loop forms almost a complete circle, and the land within was heavily timbered with soft maple and elm trees which afforded some protection from the strong sweep of the prairie winds. The man who had built the cabin—it was his first house, and therefore he was proud of it—was tall and manly looking. He stood in front of his pioneer home with a resolute face.

He had been accustomed to the buffalo-skin teepee all his life, until he opposed the white man and was defeated and made a prisoner of war at Davenport, Iowa. It was because of his meditations during those four years in a military prison that he had severed himself from his tribe and taken up a homestead. He declared that he would never join in another Indian outbreak, but would work with his hands for the rest of his life.

"I have hunted every day," he said, "for the support of my family. I sometimes chase the deer all day. One must work, and work hard, whether chasing the deer or planting corn. After all, the corn-planting is the surer provision."

These were my father's new views, and in this radical change of life he had persuaded a few other families to join him. They formed a little colony at Flandreau, on the Big Sioux River.

To be sure, his beginnings in civilization had not been attended with all the success that he had hoped for. One year the crops had been devoured by grasshoppers, and another year ruined by drought. But he was still satisfied that there was no alternative for the Indian. He was now anxious to have his boys learn the English language and something about books, for he could see that these were the "bow and arrows" of the white man. He had been into Manitoba that very summer, and with difficulty found and recovered me, his youngest son, from whom he had been separated ever since the outbreak of 1862.

He called once more, and at last a faint reply came from behind a swell of land. Soon the sounds of horses' hoofs were heard, and in another minute half a dozen wild ponies with a wild-looking boy upon the back of one of them came over the rise in a hot chase towards the cabin. The boy rider raised again and again his lariat over his head, until, panting, they halted before the door.

"Ohiyesa, I have said that you will have to go to school to learn the ways of the white man. It is time. You may take one of the ponies and ride over now to the school-house."

I remember quite well how I felt as I stood there with eyes fixed upon the ground.

"And what am I to do at the school?" I asked finally, with much embarrassment.

"You will be taught the language of the white man, and also how to count your money and tell the prices of your horses and of your furs. The white teacher will first teach you the signs by which you can make out the words on their books. They call them A, B, C, and so forth. Old as I am, I have learned some of them."

The matter having been thus far explained, I was soon on my way to the little mission school, two miles distant

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over the prairie. There was no clear idea in my mind as to what I had to do, but as I galloped along the road I turned over and over what my father had said, and the more I thought of it the less I was satisfied. Finally I said aloud:

"Why do we need a sign language, when we can both hear and talk?" And unconsciously I pulled on the lariat and the pony came to a stop. I suppose I was half curious and half in dread about this "learning white men's ways." Meanwhile the pony had begun to graze.

While thus absorbed in thought, I was suddenly startled by the yells of two other Indian boys and the noise of their ponies' hoofs. I pulled the pony's head up just as the two strangers also pulled up and stopped their panting ponies at my side. They stared at me for a minute, while I looked at them out of the corners of my eyes.

"Where are you going? Are you going to our school?" volunteered one of the boys at last.

To this I replied timidly: "My father told me to go to a place where the white men's ways are taught, and to learn the sign language."

"That's good—we are going there too! Come on, Red Feather, let's try another race! I think, if we had not stopped, my pony would have outrun yours. Will you race with us?" he continued, addressing me; and we all started our ponies at full speed.

I soon saw that the two strange boys were riding erect and soldier-like. "That must be because they have been taught to be like the white man," I thought. I allowed my pony a free start and leaned forward until the animal drew deep breaths, then I slid back and laid my head against the pony's shoulder, at the same time raising my quirt, and he leaped forward with a will! I yelled as I passed the other boys, and pulled up when I reached the crossing. The others stopped, too, and surveyed pony and rider from head to foot, as if they had never seen us before.

"You have a fast pony. Did you bring him back with you from Canada?" Red Feather asked. "I think you are the son of Many Lightnings, whom he brought home the other day," the boy added.

"Yes, this is my own pony. My uncle in Canada always used him to chase the buffalo, and he has ridden him in many battles." I spoke with considerable pride.

"Well, as there are no more buffalo to chase now, your pony will have to pull the plow like the rest. But if you ride him to school, you can join in the races. On the holy days the young men race horses, too." Red Feather and White Fish spoke both together, while I listened attentively, for everything was strange to me.

"What do you mean by the 'holy days'?" I asked.

"Well, that's another of the white people's customs. Every seventh day they call a 'holy day,' and on that day they go to a 'Holy House,' where they pray to their Great Mystery. They also say that no one should work on that day."

This definition of Sunday and church-going set me to thinking again, for I never knew before that there was any difference in the days.

"But how do you count the days, and how do you know what day to begin with?" I inquired.

"Oh, that's easy! The white men have everything in their books. They know how many days in a year, and they have even divided the day itself into so many equal parts; in fact, they have divided them again and again until they know how many times one can breathe in a day," said White Fish, with the air of a learned man.

"That's impossible," I thought, so I shook my head.

By this time we had reached the second crossing of the river, on whose bank stood the little mission school. Thirty or forty Indian children stood about, curiously watching the newcomers as we came up the steep bank. I realized for the first time that I was an object of curiosity, and it was not a pleasant feeling. On the other hand, I was considerably interested in the strange appearance of these school-children.

They all had on some apology for white man's clothing, but their pantaloons belonged neither to the order *short*

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nor to the *long*. Their coats, some of them, met only half-way by the help of long strings. Others were lapped over in front, and held on by a string of some sort fastened round the body. Some of their hats were brimless and others without crowns, while most were fantastically painted. The hair of all the boys was cut short, and, in spite of the evidences of great effort to keep it down, it stood erect like porcupine quills. I thought, as I stood on one side and took a careful observation of the motley gathering, that if I had to look like these boys in order to obtain something of the white man's learning, it was time for me to rebel.

The boys played ball and various other games, but I tied my pony to a tree and then walked up to the school-house and stood there as still as if I had been glued to the wall. Presently the teacher came out and rang a bell, and all the children went in, but I waited for some time before entering, and then slid inside and took the seat nearest the door. I felt singularly out of place, and for the twentieth time wished my father had not sent me.

When the teacher spoke to me, I had not the slightest idea what he meant, so I did not trouble myself to make any demonstration, for fear of giving offense. Finally he asked in broken Sioux: "What is your name?" Evidently he had not been among the Indians long, or he would not have asked that question. It takes a tactician and a diplomat to get an Indian to tell his name! The poor man was compelled to give up the attempt and resume his seat on the platform.

He then gave some unintelligible directions, and, to my great surprise, the pupils in turn held their books open and talked the talk of a strange people. Afterward the teacher made some curious signs upon a blackboard on the wall, and seemed to ask the children to read them. To me they did not compare in interest with my bird's-track and fish-fin studies on the sands. I was something like a wild cub caught overnight, and appearing in the corral next morning with the lambs. I had seen nothing thus far to prove to me the good of civilization.

Meanwhile the children grew more familiar, and whispered references were made to the "new boy's" personal appearance. At last he was called "Baby" by one of the big boys; but this was not meant for him to hear, so he did not care to hear. He rose silently and walked out. He did not dare to do or say anything in departing. The boys watched him as he led his pony to the river to drink and then jumped upon his back and started for home at a good pace. They cheered as he started over the hills: "Hoo-oo! hoo-oo! there goes the long-haired boy!"

When I was well out of sight of the school, I pulled in my pony and made him walk slowly home.

"Will going to that place make a man brave and strong?" I asked myself. "I must tell my father that I cannot stay here. I must go back to my uncle in Canada, who taught me to hunt and shoot and to be a brave man. They might as well try to make a buffalo build houses like a beaver as to teach me to be a white man," I thought.

It was growing late when at last I appeared at the cabin. "Why, what is the matter?" quoth my old grandmother, who had taken especial pride in me as a promising young hunter. Really, my face had assumed a look of distress and mental pressure that frightened the superstitious old woman. She held her peace, however, until my father returned.

"Ah," she said then, "I never fully believed in these new manners! The Great Mystery cannot make a mistake. I say it is against our religion to change the customs that have been practiced by our people ages back—so far back that no one can remember it. Many of the school-children have died, you have told me. It is not strange. You have offended Him, because you have made these children change the ways he has given us. I must know more about this matter before I give my consent." Grandmother had opened her mind in unmistakable terms, and the whole family was listening to her in silence.

Then my hard-headed father broke the pause. "Here is one Sioux who will sacrifice everything to win the wisdom of the white man! We have now entered upon this life, and there is no

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going back. Besides, one would be like a hobbled pony without learning to live like those among whom we must live."

During father's speech my eyes had been fixed upon the burning logs that stood on end in the huge mud chimney in a corner of the cabin. I didn't want to go to that place again; but father's logic was too strong for me, and the next morning I had my long hair cut, and started in to school in earnest.

I obeyed my father's wishes, and went regularly to the little day-school, but as yet my mind was in darkness. What has all this talk of books to do with hunting, or even with planting corn? I thought. The subject occupied my thoughts more and more, doubtless owing to my father's decided position on the matter; while, on the other hand, my grandmother's view of this new life was not encouraging.

I took the situation seriously enough, and I remember I went with it where all my people go when they want light—into the thick woods. I needed counsel, and human counsel did not satisfy me. I had been taught to seek the "Great Mystery" in silence, in the deep forest or on the height of the mountain. There were no mountains here, so I retired into the woods. I knew nothing of the white man's religion; I only followed the teaching of my ancestors.

When I came back, my heart was strong. I desired to follow the new trail to the end. I knew that, like the little brook, it must lead to larger and larger ones until it became a resistless river, and I shivered to think of it. But again I recalled the teachings of my people, and determined to imitate their undaunted bravery and stoic resignation. However, I was far from having realized the long, tedious years of study and confinement before I could begin to achieve what I had planned.

It was now twelve years since the Minnesota massacre, when the youngest son of Jacob Eastman, formerly called Many Lightnings, had been betrayed and led over the Canadian line. From that time his father had not seen or heard of him until he found him early that summer near Fort Ellice, Manitoba. Here was his family reunited at last under the new conditions, and he never lost an opportunity to impress upon the mind of his boy the importance of work and education. That youngest boy was myself.

It appears remarkable to me now that my father, thorough Indian as he was, should have had such deep and sound conceptions of a true civilization. But there is the contrast—my father's mother! whose faith in her people's philosophy and training could not be superseded by any other allegiance.

To her such a life as we lead to-day would be no less than sacrilege. "It is not a true life," she often said. "It is a sham. I cannot bear to see my boy live a made-up life!"

Ah, grandmother! you had forgotten one of the first principles of your own teaching, namely: "When you see a new trail, or a footprint that you do not know, follow it to the point of knowing."

"All I want to say to you," the old grandmother seemed to answer, "is this: Do not get lost on this new trail."

"I find," said my father to me, "that the white man has a well-grounded religion, and teaches his children the same virtues that our people taught to theirs. The 'Great Mystery' has shown to the red and white man alike the good and evil, from which to choose. I think the way of the white man is better than ours, because he is able to preserve on paper the things he does not want to forget. He records everything—the sayings of his wise men, the laws enacted by his counselors."

I began to be really interested in this curious scheme of living that my father was gradually unfolding to me out of his limited experience.

"The way of knowledge," he continued, "is like our old way in hunting. You begin with a mere trail—a footprint. If you follow that faithfully, it may lead you to a clearer trail—a track—a road. Later on there will be many tracks, crossing and diverging one from the other. Then you must be careful, for success lies in the choice of the right road. You must be doubly careful, for traps will be laid for you, of which the most dangerous is the spirit-water, that causes a man to forget his self-respect,"

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he added, unwittingly giving to his aged mother material for her argument against civilization.

The general effect upon me of these discussions, which were logical enough on the whole, although almost entirely from the outside, was that I became convinced that my father was right.

My grandmother had to yield at last, and it was settled that I was to go to school at Santee Agency, Nebraska, where Dr. Alfred L. Riggs was then fairly started in the work of his great mission school, which has turned out some of the very best educated Sioux Indians. It was at that time the Mecca of the Sioux country; even though Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse were still at large, harassing soldiers and emigrants alike, and General Custer had just been placed in military command of the Dakota Territory.

A ROMANTIC BIOGRAPHY[1]

THE story of Columbus has been told so often that at first thought there would seem to be little or no room for a new life of the great discoverer. But first thoughts are very likely to prove erroneous, and in point of fact Mr. Filson Young readily finds warrant for his biography. As is well known, the historians have been exceedingly busy with Columbus during the past few years, and as a result of their labors much that is surprising and not a little that is puzzling in his character and career have been brought to light. Reason has been found, for instance, for doubting the truthfulness of certain important statements he made regarding his ancestry and his achievements. It is hinted that he did not scruple to resort to forgery when forgery might serve his purpose. And that he was treacherous and avaricious is suggested by the circumstance that he robbed a poor mariner of the reward promised to the man who should first sight land after the long voyage across the then unknown Atlantic. These and similar discoveries have naturally tended to dim the sun of his hitherto splendid reputation. But they have also been productive of an endless amount of controversy, interesting and instructive, no doubt, so far as the historians themselves are concerned, but leaving the general public very much in the dark respecting the manner of man Columbus really was.

For the general public, then, Mr. Young has written his book. Its purpose is not to add aught to the mass of controversial material accumulated by the recent investigators, but to take that material, extract from it the salient facts, and so present them that the uninformed reader can easily grasp their significance, and, what is more, will be stimulated to grasp it. This last is the really distinctive feature of Mr. Young's biography. He has striven to make his Columbus a very real figure moving in a very real world, a Columbus of the documents but also of flesh and blood, a Columbus whom we may not admire as unreservedly as was our wont before research turned its great white light on him, but a Columbus whom we understand, and with whom, understanding, we sympathize. In a word, from beginning to end his pages palpitate with feeling, with action, with life.

This effect is obtained by singularly audacious and original methods, methods so audacious and original, indeed, that the critic is hard put to peruse the work with an open mind and arrive at a fair verdict. If he be an adherent of the so-called scientific school of historical writing, he will be inclined to lose patience and disparage the biography; if, on the other hand, he be an enthusiastic disciple of the picturesque school, he will be tempted to overrate it. Mr. Young has, in effect, taken startling liberties with the established canons of historical writing. With the object of impressing upon his readers "that Christopher Columbus is not only a name, but that the human being whom we so describe did actually once live and walk

[1] Christopher Columbus and the New World of His Discovery. By Filson Young. With a Note on the Navigation of Columbus's First Voyage, by the Earl of Dunraven, K.G. Two Volumes. J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia.

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in the world; did actually sail and look upon seas where we may also sail and look; did stir with his feet the indestructible dust of this old earth, and center in himself, as we all do, the whole interest and meaning of the universe," he has clothed the known facts of Columbus's career in language the most romantic and dramatic, has sought to grasp the unknown facts by the aid of conjecture, and has at all times set the stage of action with striking and picturesque scenery.

His exordium prepares us for a book not cast along conventional lines. Instead of the usual introductory chapter dealing with the ancestry, birth, etc., of the hero, we have what is really a little essay on the emotions aroused in the mind of man by contemplation of the sea, an essay which finds its justification in Mr. Young's view-point of Columbus as owing his great achievement to the domination of an idea born of night watches on the vasty deep. Then follows, not in one chapter but in several, a bold reconstruction of that least-known period in the discoverer's life—the period of his infancy, youth, and early voyages. It is a period full of gaps from the documentary standpoint, and one which most biographers traverse hurriedly. But Mr. Young lingers, determined to make the most of the few bare facts available, and evidently hoping to give his readers some measure of understanding into the influences that went to shape Columbus's career, and it may be to account for the failings that modern research has so mercilessly exposed. Here, therefore, we find our author making liberal use of the gift of imagination with which he is richly endowed. Nor does he disdain the use of imagination when he comes to surer ground—to the years of sojourn in Portugal, of hope long deferred, of the discovery, of the successive voyages, and of the failures as a colonial administrator. There is space for but one quotation to illustrate the method pursued, a quotation from Mr. Young's account of the departure from Palos on the ever-memorable voyage to the unknown lands of the setting sun:

> The time for meditations grows short. Lights are moving about in the town beneath; there is an unwonted midnight stir and bustle; the whole population is up and about, running hither and thither with lamps and torches through the starlit night. The tide is flowing; it will be high water before dawn; and with the first of the ebb the little fleet is to set sail. The stream of hurrying sailors and townspeople sets towards the church of Saint George, where mass is to be said and the Sacrament administered to the voyagers. The calls and shouts die away; the bell stops ringing, and the low muttering voice of the priest is heard beginning the Office. The light of the candles shines upon the gaudy roof and over the altar upon the wooden image of Saint George vanquishing the dragon, upon which the eyes of Christopher rested during some part of the service, and where to-day your eyes may rest also if you make that pilgrimage. The moment approaches; the bread and the wine are consecrated; there is a shuffling of knees and feet; then a pause. The clear notes of the bell ring out upon the warm, dusky silence—once, twice, thrice; the living God and the cold presence of dawn enter the church together. Every head is bowed; and for once at least every heart of that company beats in unison with the rest. And then the Office goes on, and the dark-skinned congregation streams up to the sanctuary and receives the Communion, while the blue light of dawn increases and the candles pale before the coming day. And then out again to the boats with shoutings and farewells, for the tide has now turned; hoisting of sails and tripping of anchors and breaking out of gorgeous ensigns; and the ships are moving! The Maria leads, with the sign of the Redemption painted on her mainsail, and the standard of Castile flying at her mizzen; and there is cheering from ships and from shore, and a faint sound of bells from the town of Huelva.
>
> Thus, the sea being calm and a fresh breeze blowing off the land, did Christopher Columbus set sail from Palos at sunrise on Friday, the 3d of August, 1492.

No need to point out how strongly this smacks of the historical romance; and, the passage quoted being typical, such is the flavor of the work throughout. Not that Mr. Young shows himself at all times master of the romanticist's art. Occasionally there seems to be a straining after effect, and not infrequently there are crudities and floridities of diction that offend the more because of their unexpectedness. But, bearing in mind the fact that he achieves the exceedingly difficult task of bringing the man of the twentieth century into intimate touch with the man of the fifteenth, that he visualizes Columbus as few, if any, of his previous biographers have done, and that in addition to the gift of imagination

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he displays the scholar's passion for mastery of the facts; and bearing still more firmly in mind that he has written his book, not primarily for the special student, but for those readers—and their name is legion—to whom history profits nothing unless it be given a romantic setting, the judgment of candid criticism must be in his favor. At the same time, it is our opinion that he has pressed the theories of the picturesque school to a dangerous extreme, and he could have attained his purpose with even greater surety, and without any sacrifice of the dramatic elements of the story, by writing with more restraint.

Comment on Current Books

Beza The three hundredth anniversary of the death of the great reformer Beza was appropriately celebrated in Geneva recently by meetings which lasted three days and were addressed by eminent men. It is a satisfaction to students of history, especially of church history, that some of these discourses have now been printed and published with rare illustrations.[1] Among the discourses are those of Professor Doumergue, representing the Evangelical churches, and of Baron Schickler, representing the Reformed churches of France; of Professor Vuilleumier, of the University of Lausanne, and of Professor Borgeaud, the eminent historian and in especial the historian of the "Academy of Calvin," now the University of Geneva, as his recently published tome demonstrates.

Birket Foster For many years, at least to the British public, the late Birket Foster seemed the water-color painter *par excellence*. He was not undeserving of this reputation. He combined, and often ideally, exactness of reproduction with pure poetic feeling. With this enviable equipment, his range of subjects was gratifyingly wide. It covered not only England, which he knew intimately from end to end, but also France, which he knew hardly less well, the Rhine, and Venice. The painter's lovable personality well matched his attractive pictures. It should be a satisfaction to Englishmen and also to many Americans to own the handsome just-published volume[2] in which they will find a wealth of charming illustrations, some of them in color, of very many of Foster's works. Mr. Cundall, one of the artist's oldest friends, furnishes some capital biographical and critical comment.

Consular Jurisdiction in the Orient The appointment of Judge Wilfley to be the head of the new United States Court in China has called special attention to consular jurisdiction in the Orient. Judge Wilfley's court does not come under the jurisdiction of our Department of Justice. The court was created to take the place of consular courts. It is thus under the jurisdiction of our Department of State. Consular courts have been necessary in countries where governmental conditions have not afforded proper recourse to our citizens. In Japan, however, the conclusion of treaties ten years ago, recognizing the judicial autonomy of that country, ended the system of consular extraterritorial jurisdiction under which foreigners had been privileged to reside and trade there. Of course such a system demands peculiar qualifications on the part of our diplomatic and consular representatives. In general, the character of those representatives has been good. A number of flagrant exceptions to this rule in recent times, however, shows the desirability of having stricter courts of proceedings, which would also demand the service of men of greater attainments, efficiency, and character. Hence the institution of the United States Court for China. The difficulties already encountered by Judge Wilfley in presiding over that court, not only with those who come before him for trial but also with the Shanghai attorneys, make the publication of Dr. Hinckley's "American Consular Jurisdiction in the Orient"[1] peculiarly timely. Dr. Hinckley himself is a colleague of the officials of the new Chinese court. After reviewing historic forms of extraterritoriality and the list of our treaties with countries of the Orient, after summarizing American and foreign statutes establishing the system of consular courts, he discusses legal rights under such jurisdiction—among them, nationality, the rule of domicile, marriage, persons accused of crime, real property, taxation, commercial privileges, and the rights of missionaries. Appended to this are chapters on international tribunals, on the foreign settlements in China, and on the grounds for

1 Théodore de Bèze. Compte rendu publié par lar Société du Musée Historique de la Réformation. Imprimerie "Atar," Geneva, Switzerland.

2 Birket Foster, R.W.S. By H. M. Cundall, I.S.O., F.S.A. The Macmillan Company, New York. $6, net.

1 American Consular Jurisdiction in the Orient. By Frank E. Hinckley. W. H. Lowdermilk & Co., Washington, D. C.

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relinquishing foreign jurisdiction. There follow the texts of various statutes, rules, and regulations, of great importance to students of international law. The work is amply indexed.

The Electric Spirit

The author of these poems[1] brings to her work noticeable strength of thought and unusual feeling for rhythm. The title poem is addressed to the mysterious power only partly subdued to our uses, and expresses in highly poetic language the fantastic yet enduring quality of electric forces, whose "touch is flame" and whose "kiss is death." Among the verses that linger in the memory are "The City," "A Choice," "In a Hospital Ward," and "Love's Refuge."

A CHOICE

Those who have fallen let others seek,
With soothing voice and lifting hand;
If God but give me leave to speak
One word of cheer to those who stand.

Let others with their love entold
The feebler souls that cling to wrong;
I would but touch with steadying hold
The bitter burdens of the strong.

Great, patient souls, that make no plaint,
Till death reveals the weight they bore!
They close the ranks of those who faint,
And take their tolls forevermore.

Enameling

Mr. Henry H. Cunynghame has compiled a valuable volume[2] for that already valuable series, "The Connoisseur's Library." The volumes composing this library are models of book-making. Mr. Cunynghame has some surprising things to say to the general reader; for instance, the original of enamel work was not for the purpose of beautiful ornamentation, but for the preservation in a convenient manner of gems and metals which were supposed to possess various occult virtues. We are told about the various methods of enameling, such as the putting of enamels into cloisons or cavities scooped out of plates of copper, or of using them as a sort of paint, and putting them on in layers without metallic boundaries. The author then deals chronologically with enameling, distinguishing especially the work of the early Gauls and Byzantines.

The Art Value of Furniture

There is a gratifyingly increasing appreciation of furniture and wood-carving as a distinct branch of art. Some American houses have been furnished with a really exquisite appreciation of the art value of furniture as well as of its utility. Collectors and others will welcome this handsome volume[1] descriptive of a wonderful collection of old furniture, wood-carvings, bindings, stained glass, and other objects of art. The interesting text is immensely reinforced by nearly two hundred illustrations.

A History of Tapestry

Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan has just given to the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York City, a notable series of Flemish-Burgundian tapestries, undoubtedly the most important gift of the kind ever made in America. The gift adds special interest to the publication of a sumptuous volume[2] on tapestry from the earliest times till the present day by Mr. W. G. Thomson. He has been very fortunate in being able to illustrate his own text. The pictures number over eighty, are in color and half-tone, on full-page plates and in the text. While the subject of tapestry interests every lover of decoration, it is not as appreciated as it should be. Its records throw valuable side-lights on history. In the present volume we find many more instances than are generally known where national events have been commemorated and where sovereigns and princes have paved the way to negotiations and treaties desired by them by the timely gift of a costly tapestry. Finally, tapestries give us a wonderfully graphic idea of house construction and decoration, of folk and home life of old times. It seems strange that descriptions of this art should have been neglected in the field of English literature, but the greatly increasing interest in that art in our own day makes the publication of Mr. Thomson's book timely. It is, as well, in paper, print, binding, and weight of volume, a model publication.

Lombardy

A book to be read in connection with Symonds's "Age of the Despots" has long been a desideratum—a clear and comprehensive account of North Italy from the Roman times down at least to the middle of the fourteenth century. Such a book is now at hand in Mr. Butler's "Lombard Communes."[3] In our time Lombardy is circumscribed within comparatively narrow limits, but when, in the year 568, the Lombards invaded Italy, the whole northern part of the peninsula was regarded by them as one homogeneous country. It is interesting to note in the development of subsequent history that the lakes—Como, Maggiore, and the rest—played a relatively small part, and it is equally interesting to note the very large part played by the cities of the plain, not

1 The Electric Spirit and Other Poems. By Marion Couthouy Smith. The Gorham Press, Boston. $1.
2 European Enamels. By Henry H. Cunynghame, C.B. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $6.75, net.

1 The Talbot J. Taylor Collection: Furniture, Wood-Carving, and Other Branches of the Decorative Arts. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $6. net.
2 A History of Tapestry: From the Earliest Times until the Present Day. By W. G. Thomson. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $12, net.
3 The Lombard Communes. By W. E. Butler, M.A. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $3.75, net.

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only wealthier but also more democratic than were those of the hills and mountains. In no very picturesque phrase, but at the same time in easily understood language, Mr. Butler recounts the history of the City-States of Lombardy, the rule of the early bishops, the rights of the communes, the history of Milan, Lombardy's natural capital, the first and second Lombard Leagues, and the final struggles of the communes.

A Notable Help to Students of International Law

Our present Secretary of State is rapidly adding to his laurels. During the comparatively short time since Colonel Hay's death, Mr. Root has not only put the impress of his forceful personality upon the State Department, but has distinctly molded the currents of American political thought throughout the world. He has done this first of all by such notable speeches at home as his Hearst-destroying address last summer at Utica, and abroad by his series of epoch-making speeches in South America, but he may now mold the currents of political thought even more powerfully by means of the press. The American Society of International Law, of which he is the president, has begun the publication of "The American Journal of International Law," a quarterly. The first volume[1] is now before us. In his preface to the number Mr. Root calls attention to the increase of popular control over national conduct as the distinctive mark of contemporary political development of our time. This makes it constantly more important that in each country the great body of the people should have a just conception of their international rights and duties. Of course a principal means in bringing about this desirable condition is to promote popular habits of reading and thinking about international affairs. As Mr. Root says, "The more clearly and universally the people of a country realize the international obligations and duties of their country, the less likely they will be to resent the just demands of other countries that those obligations and duties be observed." Again, "The more familiar the people of a country are with the rules and customs of self-restraint and courtesy between nations, which long experience has shown to be indispensable for preserving the peace of the world, the greater will be the tendency to refrain from publicly discussing controversies with other countries in such a way as to hinder peaceful settlement by wounding sensibilities or arousing anger and prejudice on the other side." The true basis of peace is certainly to be found in a just and considerate spirit among the people, and a means to this end is a familiarity with international law that will form and lead public opinion. The present number also includes articles by ex-Secretary of State Foster, Professor Moore, formerly First Assistant Secretary of State, Judge-Advocate-General Davis, Professor Hershey, of the University of Indiana, Professor Wilson, of Brown University, and other eminent authorities. The editorial comment covers a wide range of subject, and there is a chronicle of suggestive international events. Then comes a list of public documents relating to and the condensed text of judicial decisions involving questions of international law. Finally, there is a department of book reviews in which we note interesting notices of about forty books in about twenty pages. A supplement to the quarterly, of about one-quarter the thickness, published in the same form, admirable color of cover, paper and print, comprises certain official documents of note. The supplement is separately paged and sewed, and will be separately indexed in order that these original texts may be bound by themselves. The work as a whole is invaluable to the student of international law. To all members of the American Society of International Law the price is fifty cents a number; to non-members the price of single numbers is one dollar each.

[1] The American Journal of International Law. Vol. I. First Quarter. Published by the American Society of International Law, at the Waverly Press, Baltimore.

Panama Problems

We are glad to see a new edition of General Abbot's valuable book.[1] It is in many ways the best compendium of information as to physical conditions, engineering natural difficulties, and the merits of different canal projects to be had anywhere. The book was originally published some two years ago, and to this revised edition a new chapter has been added carrying on the historical narrative since the transfer of the work to the United States; passages have also been introduced into other chapters with recent data regarding climate, hydraulic problems, and the new projects under way since the United States has begun its efforts. Thus the history of the enterprise throughout is covered and the technology and information of the book brought down to 1907.

[1] Problems of the Panama Canal. By Brigadier-General Henry L. Abbot, United States Army, Retired. The Macmillan Company, New York. $2, net.

Pollaiuolo

In their revolt against Roman sensuality the early Christians went so far as to revolt against sensuousness also. Their art took no account of the human form divine. They enveloped the body in draperies. They even conventionalized face, hands, and feet. Giotto was the first

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artist after the Greeks and Romans to give solidity and weight to the body, and Donatello the first to realize its superficial forms and to endow the nude with mind. But Pollaiuolo was the first fully to present the actual structure of muscle and bone, the actual movements of limb and joint. Though, curiously enough, Pollaiuolo was of all his contemporaries apparently the one least influenced by classic art, it may be claimed that he was also the one most genuinely to influence the art of his time. He certainly paved the way for Leonardo and Michelangelo. In his various Florentine studies Mr. Berenson has paid considerable attention to Pollaiuolo, it is true, but, strange as it may seem, no book exclusively dealing with that artist has heretofore been published. Fortunately, such a "find" in material comes to Miss Cruttwell's competent hands; her volume on the Robbias shows what she might be expected to do with it. Like that book, so the present[1] has permanent value. Practically for the first time, Pollaiuolo's place as painter, sculptor, draughtsman, designer, engraver, and goldsmith is definitely and popularly defined, and the attention of students is awakened as not before to Pollaiuolo's real influence and place in the history of art.

Portuguese East Africa

Mr. Maugham makes a valuable contribution in this book[2] to the not very easily obtainable existing stock of knowledge about Portuguese East Africa. He has been consul for Mozambique and other ports, he is evidently a keen sportsman, and it is equally evident that he has made some study of race characteristics, native superstitions, local dialects, and physical features of the country about which he writes. Photographs, mainly of large game and types of native races, add to the interest of the work.

A Revolutionary Princess

The daughter of an ancient Milanese house, Christina Belgiojoso-Trivulzio, was six years old when the abdication of Napoleon again gave North Italy to Austria. She matured in an atmosphere of political unrest and resentment, later to develop into actual revolution. Tall, pale, and beautiful to look at; melodramatic in manner, vain and erratic, of great fortune, thorough education, of rather masculine training, of distinguished social position by birth, marriage, and environment, passionately patriotic, the Princess was an extraordinary figure. She had marked genius for organization, whether in prosaic pioneer work necessary to establishing agricultural experiments on her own estates, which more than once had been sequestrated; in assembling the various social elements for her brilliant *salon*, or, finally and chiefly, as an indefatigable conspirator in collecting revolutionary forces together and in endowing them with something of her own enthusiasm. For hers was a real enthusiasm, although she was a hysterical woman who lived in hysterical times—at least the times were hysterical as she understood them. The times were also morally out of joint, and in drawing her portrait[1] Mr. Whitehouse has shown excellent taste and restraint. The Princess moved in circles where scandal was rife; wherever there has been "gabble" the biographer gives both his heroine and his readers the benefit of the doubt. The Princess's personal charm, together with her long connection with revolutionary and other movements and with the public men of her day, brought to her a circle of friends as varied as it was picturesque. Among them we find Cavour, Verdi, Bellini, Heine, Margaret Fuller, George Sand, Alfred de Musset, Thiers, and the good old Lafayette. To these in 1846 the Princess added the then poverty-stricken Louis Napoleon. She sought him out in his London lodgings and unfolded to him her plan to liberate Italy. Did he not think of it and her when, years later, he was a prime mover in that liberation? Mr. Whitehouse has given us not only an interesting biography but a vivacious history of the first three-quarters of the past century in leading to one of the greatest achievements of that century, the unification and liberation of Italy.

The Russo-Japanese War and International Law

The Russo-Japanese War affected international law in two ways. First, it aided in solving some disputed questions. Secondly, it gave rise to some new precedents. In either case, the war was an indication of the existing condition of international morality. Written exclusively from the standpoint of diplomacy and international law, a history of the war has been, of course, a desideratum ever since that war closed. It is a satisfaction, therefore, to chronicle the appearance of such a work in the stout, well-printed volume compiled by Dr. Hershey, Professor of Political Science and International Law in the University of Indiana.[2] After discussing the

1 Antonio Pollaiuolo. By Maud Cruttwell. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $2, net.

2 Portuguese East Africa. By R. C. F. Maugham. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $4.50, net.

1 A Revolutionary Princess, Christina Belgiojoso-Trivulzio: Her Life and Her Times, 1808-1871. By H. Remsen Whitehouse. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $3 net.

2 The International Law and Diplomacy of the Russo-Japanese War. By Amos S. Hershey, Ph.D. The Macmillan Company, New York. $3, net.

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causes of the war and its outbreak, Professor Hershey treats of such subjects as the construction, sale, and exportation by neutrals of war-ships; of submarine boats and other vessels intended for belligerent service; of the rights of neutral merchantmen, especially the right of visit and search, and of the alleged right of seeking neutral prizes; of the rights and privileges of belligerent armed vessels in neutral ports and waters; of submarine mines; of wireless telegraphy; of contraband of war. Dr. Hershey also discusses our interpretation of international law and our conduct in respect to neutral rights and duties—the John Hay note and Chinese neutrality, for instance. He finally treats our relations with England as affected by the war. A chapter of special interest to army men has to do with Russian and Japanese warfare and on the relations of the belligerents with each other. As might be expected, the final chapter of this interesting and suggestive volume has the Treaty of Portsmouth as its subject; we might wish that the chapter had been longer. Of course the work is amply indexed.

Letters to The Outlook

EDUCATIONAL EFFICIENCY IN THE SOUTH

In an article in The Outlook for March 16 Robert W. Bruère asserts that Vanderbilt University and the Randolph-Macon Woman's College are the only two "institutions of higher learning south of Mason and Dixon's line whose entrance requirements are up to the standard adopted by the [Carnegie] Foundation;" this statement does injustice to at least one institution in the South, namely, Rollins College, at Winter Park, Florida.

Rollins College provides a four years' course of study covering one hundred and thirty-six points, *i.e.*, an average of seventeen recitations a week for eight semesters; and it requires for admission to the Freshman class four full years of preparatory work, covering the same number of points as in the college. For admission to the Freshman class in the classical course it requires seven years of language study, and for admission to the Freshman class of the scientific course four years of language study, together with Civil Government, English History, Elementary Astronomy, and Physical Geography, besides, in both courses, the usual amount of mathematical, English, and subpreparatory work. It fully meets the requirements of the Carnegie Foundation. Several graduates of Rollins Academy have been admitted to the Freshman class of leading universities and colleges of the North, and several students in the College have been admitted *ad eundem* to advanced classes in these universities and colleges, where they have made Phi Beta Kappa rank. I may add that one of the recent graduates of the College is now serving as tutor in Columbia University, and a graduate of the Academy, who also took a portion of his college course here, as assistant professor in the Leland Stanford Junior University. A member of the present Senior class, who is also a graduate of the Academy, lately passed the Responsions examination and has been appointed to a Rhodes Scholarship at Oxford, England.

WM. F. BLACKMAN, President.
Rollins College, Winter Park, Florida,
Office of the President.

In Mr. Bruère's interesting article entitled "Educational Efficiency," in The Outlook, March 16, the following statement occurs:

> Randolph-Macon Woman's College and Vanderbilt University are the only two other institutions of higher learning [Tulane University had just been mentioned] south of Mason and Dixon's line whose entrance requirements are up to the standard adopted by the [Carnegie] Foundation.

The language of this statement suggests that its source is to be found on page 25 of President Pritchett's report. The report itself is somewhat open to criticism at that point, but does not justify Mr. Bruère's more explicit putting of the case.

"South of Mason and Dixon's line" is not a rhetorical but a mathematical expression. That historic line coincides with the parallel of 39° 43′ 26.3″ north latitude. The latitude of Baltimore is 39° 17′ north. Baltimore, therefore, is south of Mason and Dixon's line. It is the seat of two "institutions of higher learning" whose entrance requirements are fifteen points, while the "standard of the Foundation" is but fourteen points—Johns Hopkins University and the Woman's College of Baltimore. If Mr. Bruère holds to the form of his statement, he is bound to add these institutions to the three which he has named. The writer of such an able article cannot fail to see the importance of the correction asked.

JNO. B. VAN METER (Dean).
The Woman's College, Baltimore.

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WALT WHITMAN AGAIN

We were very much interested in a letter from James H. Ecob published in The Outlook March 2. The writer of the letter attacks Whitman in a most uncompromising manner. He accuses the bard of almost every act of indecency and of immorality in the catalogue. We have been students of Whitman for a couple of years, and we would be very grateful to Mr. Ecob if he will give us his authority for his assertions.

We have read Whitman's poems thoughtfully and seriously, and we have been unable to find anything but the loftiest and the purest spirit. We have searched the pages of his biographers, and they are unanimous in declaring that his life was sweet and wholesome. If Mr. Ecob knows of better authority for his accusations than John Addington Symonds, John Burroughs, and R. M. Bucke—Whitman's friends and biographers—we, as seekers after truth, wish he would enable us to extend our studies.

Mr. Ecob said that Whitman associated with the "toughs and bums" of the city. He associated with the common man—the man who labors from morning until night with his hands. He loved this common man; he understood him; and he wrote about him. Surely that cannot be such a serious crime, for he was following the example of the Great Leader, Christ.

"Not one honorable act or sentiment to his credit," is another statement made by his detractor. During the war Whitman gave his strength and the health of his future years to nursing his wounded brothers, whom he loved most tenderly. If he never did anything else, that one act cannot be wholly ignored. Opening a volume of Whitman at random, we chance to see this line, "There is no trade or employment but the young man following it may become a hero." Surely there is some good in that sentiment.

During the war Whitman contracted blood-poisoning, and he later suffered a stroke of paralysis. Perhaps these facts explain why he seemed "too idle and helpless to earn his own living."

John Burroughs, who knew him well, says of him: "That Whitman's life was a sane, temperate, manly one, free from excesses, free from perversions and morbidities of a mammonish, pampered, over stimulated age, I do believe. Indeed, I may say I *know*. The one impression he never failed to make—physically, morally, intellectually—on young and old, women and men, was that of health, sanity, sweetness. He felt the ties of universal brotherhood as few have felt it. It was not a theory with him, but a fact that shaped his life and colored his poems. 'Whoever degrades another degrades me, and the thought fired his imagination."

Whitman, like other prophets, was misunderstood and scourged by his fellow-men; but he went on giving his message to the world undaunted. Listen to his courageous spirit:

"One effort more, my altar this bleak sand;
That Thou, O God, my life hast lighted,
With ray of light, steady, ineffable, vouchsafed of Thee,
Light rare, untellable, lighting the very light,
Beyond all signs, descriptions, languages;
For that, O God, be it my latest word, here on my knees,
Old, poor, and paralyzed, I thank Thee.
My hands, my limbs grow nerveless,
My brain feels rack'd, bewilder'd,
Let the old timbers part, I will not part,
I will cling fast to Thee, O God, though the waves buffet me,
Thee, Thee at least I know."

E. H. AND J. A. S.

Butte, Montana.

[Dr. Ecob's letter was a reply to the opinions of The Outlook expressed in a book review. It seemed to us that it was perfectly apparent that The Outlook entirely disagreed with Dr. Ecob's position.—THE EDITORS.]

A PATRIOTIC OBJECT

An organized effort is to be made to purchase, restore, and preserve the home of Francis Scott Key, author of the "Star-Spangled Banner," in Washington. It stands on the main street of old Georgetown in a dilapidated condition and covered with advertisements. Its present condition is disgraceful, and unless it is soon bought it must be torn down to make way for business. The owner is willing to wait a while and to sell at a reasonable price as his contribution towards the preservation of the mansion where Key lived at the time when the National anthem was written and for twenty years besides, and where all his children were born.

A society for the purchase and preservation of the house has just been incorporated in Washington, with Commissioner Macfarland as President; Admiral Dewey, Admiral Schley, Justice Barnard, and others, as Vice-Presidents; Francis Scott Key Smith, grandson of the poet, as Secretary; and W. D. Hoover, National Savings and Trust Company, as Treasurer. The society asks $25,000 for the purchase, repair, and maintenance of the Key home, and will give a certificate of membership, signed by the officers, to every member paying the modest dues of one dollar a year. Admiral Dewey, who secured the official adoption by the navy (which was followed by the army) of the "Star-Spangled Banner" as the only National air to be played at all ceremonies, is taking a special interest in this undertaking. * *

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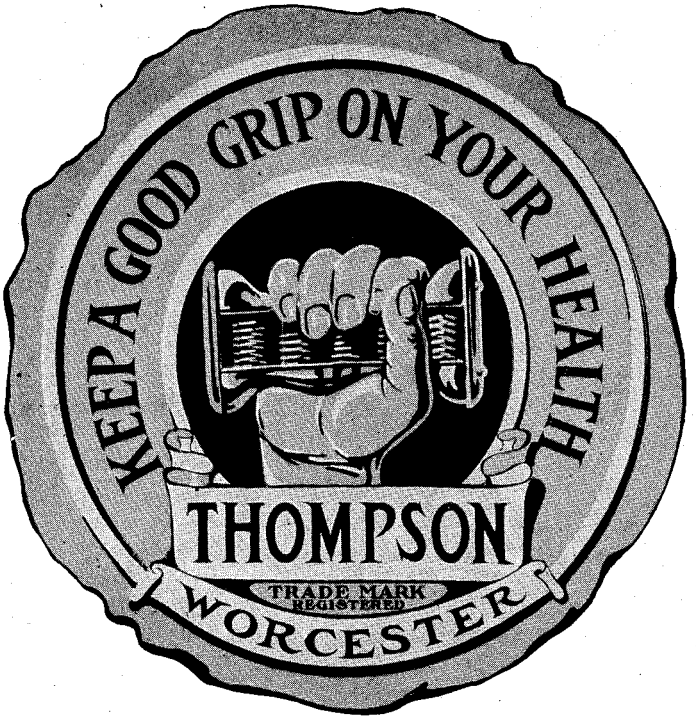

"The Man Who Trains His Muscles Trains and Builds His Brains"

These words from no less an authority than Woods Hutchinson, M.D., printed in a recent magazine article, express a thought worth fortunes to the business and professional men of this country.

Pause for a moment and consider—that your success, your happiness, your *very life* depends upon a machine so complicated and so delicately adjusted as to make the most perfect example of man's inventive genius seem crude. A mechanism of nerves, tissues, and muscles built on a framework of bone.

A careful, successful business man never would expect (nor does he) to turn out perfect work with the machinery of his factory out of adjustment or in need of repair. A worn bearing, a loose pulley, or dull tools are far too important to be neglected. In fact, he knows they are a serious detriment to his business.

And yet, there are thousands of business men trying to do important work with their bodily machinery sadly in need of adjustment and repair; never stopping to think that the difference between good health and "fairly good health" is just the difference between success and failure.

Pause for a moment and consider whether or not you are one of these men. Whether your physical machinery needs repair or adjustment. A careful consideration now of the warning given by Dr. Hutchinson, that "THE MAN WHO BUILDS HIS MUSCLES, TRAINS AND BUILDS HIS BRAINS," may help you to avoid the danger of a possible breakdown—perhaps not so very far ahead.

Headaches, liver or kidney trouble, indigestion, constipation, insomnia, or excessive flesh—any one of these troubles should never be neglected, for from a business standpoint it is a rank folly, and particularly so when nature can be induced to make the necessary repairs *without the need of medicine.*

Just how Nature can be persuaded to do this work I stand ready to show you. To obtain this knowledge myself required years of study. And yet the Physiological Method of Exercise, which is the secret of it, is simple to a surprising degree, requires but a few minutes' time each day, is fascinating to practice, and demands no sacrifice or change of habits.

The stand I take is not equivocal. I promise you certain definite results and charge a moderate fee for my instruction and advice. If I fail I return the fee—*every cent of it.* My character and responsibility are vouched for by hundreds of business men of the highest standing who have been benefited by my work.

As to my financial standing I refer by permission to the Worcester National Bank and the Worcester Trust Company. The Presidents of both institutions, by the way, have studied my method and are enthusiastic advocates of it.

Tell me briefly what your condition is and I will write you a personal letter explaining just what I can do for you. I will also send you my book—"How to Keep a Good Grip on Your Health." It contains much that is interesting, much that is of value.

The first step towards success, happiness, and long life is health and I can help you to attain it. Write me to-day.

J. EDMUND THOMPSON, 345 Main Street, Worcester, Mass.

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SOUTH Its past and future
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PENSIONS FOR OLD MINISTERS

The Trustees of the National Council earnestly invite all Congregationalists in the United States to share with them the privilege and duty of caring for aged and infirm ministers and widows, who, after many years of arduous and self-sacrificing labors in destitute fields on small pay, are left in actual need. Donations of $50,000 yearly are needed. Last year they were less than half that sum. For information address Wm. A. Rice, 287 Fourth Ave., New York. Samuel B. Forbes, Treas., Hartford, Conn. Mention Outlook.

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The Kind of Food That Will Keep You Well

The true way is to find out what is best to eat and drink, and then cultivate a taste for those things instead of poisoning ourselves with improper, indigestible food, etc.

A conservative Mass. woman writes:

"I have used Grape-Nuts 5 years for the young and for the aged; in sickness and in health; at first following directions carefully, later in a variety of ways as my taste and judgment suggested.

"But its most special, personal benefit has been a substitute for meat, and served dry with cream when rheumatic troubles made it important for me to give up the 'coffee habit.'

"Served in this way with the addition of a cup of hot water and a little fruit it has been used at my morning meal for six months, during which time my health has much improved, nerves have grown steadier, and a gradual decrease in my excessive weight adds greatly to my comfort." Name given by Postum Cereal Co., Ltd., Battle Creek, Mich. Read the little book, "The Road to Wellville," in pkgs. "There's a Reason."

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$8.75 to $18

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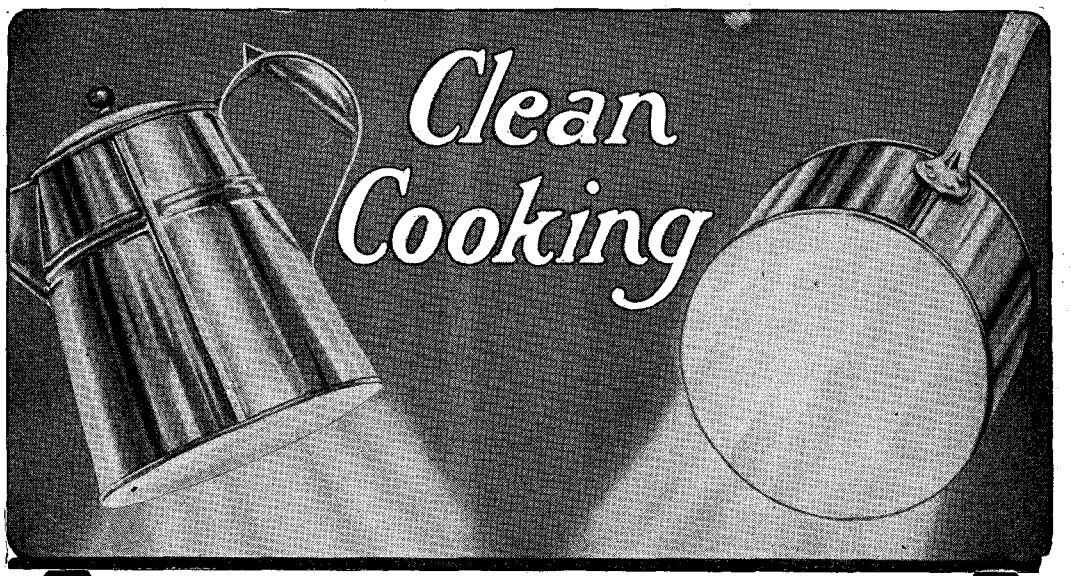

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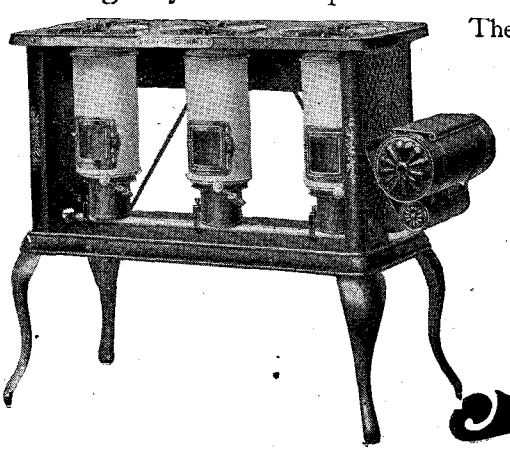

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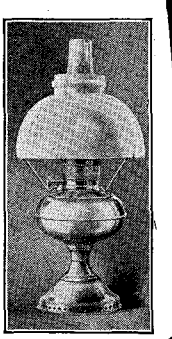

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Illiteracy Child Labor

American Institutions

DEPEND UPON

Intelligence, Virtue, Industrial Efficiency

50%

of the little Breadwinners ten to fourteen years old in the cotton mills of North Carolina are illiterate according to census figures for 1900 just published. These are white children of American stock! Only 16.6% of all the white children of that age in the entire State were illiterate, and the percentage would be even less if the little cotton mill workers were not included. North and South, cotton mill operatives, 10 to 14 years of age, are 41.3% illiterate, while that is true of only 7.1% of the total number of children of the same age.

Stand by President Roosevelt

The Cotton Mill is not the only offender against the rights of childhood.

At least half a million children under sixteen years of age are to-day working in factories, mines, trade, transportation, and occupations not including farm work. Their young bodies are being exhausted, their minds embittered, their souls destroyed.

These children ought to be in school. They are the future voters and mothers of the Republic—our sole security for the future.

President Roosevelt knows these facts. He realizes the evils of child labor, and is doing his utmost to stop it. But the President cannot conduct this fight single-handed against the combined forces of greed and ignorance. He needs *your* help. Public opinion alone can combat this sinister peril.

Protect the Children

Join the National Committee and help win this fight for the children. Here is the program:

First—keep all children under fourteen out of mines, factories, messenger service, and all physically or morally ruinous occupations.

Second—relieve and assist those who are the victims of poverty.

Third—punish cruel and avaricious parents or employers.

Fourth—prevent children under sixteen from working in mines, or in dangerous occupations, or at night.

Fifth—establish eight-hour workday for *any* child under sixteen who is allowed to work.

National Child Labor Committee

UNITED CHARITIES BUILDING, NEW YORK CITY.
CENTURY BUILDING, ATLANTA, GA.

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I take pleasure in contributing $.....to the work of the National Child Labor Committee.

Please enroll me as { An Associate Member. / A Sustaining Member. / A Guarantor.

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